

The History Teacher's Magazine

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The Legendary and Myth-Making Process in Histories of the American Revolution

BY SYDNEY G. FISHER.

Having taken the trouble some years ago to examine the great mass of original evidence relating to the American Revolution, the contemporary documents, pamphlets, letters, memoirs, diaries, the debates in parliament and the evidence obtained by its committees, I found that very little use of it had been made in writing our standard histories, works like those of Bancroft, Hildreth, Fiske, which have been the general guides and from which school books and other compilations, as well as public orations, are prepared.

Others have made the same discovery and have been overwhelmed with the same astonishment. About fifteen years ago Mr. Charles Kendall Adams, astonished at what he found in the original evidence, wrote an article on the subject published in the *Atlantic Monthly* (Vol. 82, page 174), ridiculing the standard histories for having abandoned the actualities and the original evidence. Our whole conception of the Revolution, he said, would have to be altered and the history of it rewritten. Within the last year or two Mr. Charles Francis Adams has made the same discovery, and in his recent volume "Studies Military and Diplomatic" has attacked the historians with even greater severity and rewritten in his usual trenchant, luminous and captivating style, a considerable portion of that history. His essays on the military strategy of the Revolution are contributions of permanent value, refreshing and ennobling, because they substitute truth and actuality for the mawkish sentimentality and nonsense with which we have been so long nauseated.

Minor investigations like recent works on the Loyalists by Flick, Van Tyne, Ryerson and Stark, also Bartlett's "Destruction of the Gaspee," Judge Horace Gray's essay on the "Writs of Assistance," publications like the Hutchinson Letters, the Clinton-Cornwallis Controversy, have of course helped to bring about this change. The general improvement in public libraries, in accessibility to the old pamphlets and original evidence of all sorts, has also helped and led to a desire for knowledge of the actual events. Lapse of time, too, is no doubt having its effect in lessening the supposed inadvisability of letting all about the Revolution be known.

Within the last two years in writing a life of Daniel Webster, I had occasion to examine the original evidence of our history from the War of 1812 to the Compromise of 1850; and I found that it had substantially all been used in our histories of that period. There was no ignoring of it or concealment

of it such as I had found when I investigated the original evidence of the Revolution. It is strange at first sight, that the history of our Civil War of 1861 should have all its phases so openly and thoroughly exhibited, the side of the South as well as the side of the North, both fully displayed to the public, and that the greater part of the evidence of the Revolution should be concealed. But the circumstances of the Revolution were quite different.

In the first place, the large loyalist party in this country in some places a majority, were so completely defeated, hunted down, terrorized, driven out of the country and scattered in Canada and various British possessions, that to use a vulgarism they never "opened their heads" again. It is only in recent times that any one has had the face to collect their evidence and arguments from the original sources and publish it. For more than half a century after the Revolution no writer could gain anything but condemnation and contempt for mentioning anything about them. The successful party in America would not even vilify them, but ignored them and their doings as if they had had no existence. The object of this was to make it appear that the Revolution had been a great spontaneous uprising of the whole American people without faction or disagreement among themselves. In England, strangely enough, the loyalists were also ignored and nothing said about them. They were often suspected of being half rebels, "white-washed rebels," as they were sometimes called. Those who fled to England were apt to be treated with more or less contempt. They were often regarded as mere objects of charity, "lick pennies," as one of them complained, or, at best, as mere provincials of neither social nor political importance.

But at the close of our Civil War, the people of the Southern States remained in the country, were respected by the North as well as by the rest of the world, published their side of the controversy and again sent their representatives to Congress as they had done before the war. No one has as yet dared to falsify or conceal the facts of that history or turn it into myths and legends.

In the second place, after the close of the Revolution, we were for a long time a very disunited country. It was very doubtful whether the States would be able to come together and form a national government. Many thought that some of them might go back under British control. When a national constitution was at last adopted, it was regarded by the rest

of the world, and even by ourselves, as an experiment which very likely might not in the end succeed. In Europe, it was largely regarded as a ridiculous experiment. Our democratic ideas and manners were despised and our newness and crudeness contrasted with the settled comfort and refinement of the old nations. We felt all this keenly. Our writers and able men struggled might and main to unite our people and build up a nation. They strove to give dignity and respect to everything; to make no damaging admissions, to let not the smallest fact creep out, that might be taken advantage of. It was, therefore, perhaps too much to expect that they would describe the factions and turmoil of the Revolution as they really were, the military absurdity of the British General Howe letting it go by default, the cruelty and persecution inflicted on the loyalists, and their large numbers. So they described a Revolution that never happened and never could happen. A whoop and hurrah boys! All spontaneous, all united; merciful, noble, perfect; all virtue and grand ideas on one side, all vice, wickedness, effeteness and degeneration on the other.

That feeling, the boasting and the exaggeration were proper enough in one sense. It was certainly right to strive to build up the nation, and protect and dignify it. But one of the most curious instances of the way the feeling worked was Jared Sparks' edition of the letters of Washington. Sparks was the President of Harvard College, a man of intellect and learning, the author of an interesting collection of biographies of American worthies. He felt that he must exalt Washington, and so he rewrote quite a number of the Washington letters, struck out such expressions as such and such a thing would "not amount to a flea bite," altered some statements about religion and God, left out whole passages, especially those in which Washington told of cashiering officers for cowardice. Sparks was an interesting instance of the myth-making process used for pious purposes, for by magnifying Washington in this way he, no doubt, sincerely believed that he was helping religion and the youth of the country by setting up an example of perfection. Even Washington Irving, as Mr. Adams points out ("Studies Military and Diplomatic," pp. 166-168), was not a little inclined to myth-making. Irving gave us some excellent historical work, for which we should be grateful; but he could not altogether escape the taint of his time.

Jared Sparks was unquestionably a man of integrity, but he was carried away by the feeling of making a good showing by manufacturing Washington into theoretical perfection. I do not suppose that he for one moment realized that he was doing what very closely resembled some things for which persons in lower walks of life are sent to jail. He had a rude awakening when W. B. Reed discovered the whole imposture and published the original letters, with the Sparks improvements side by side. But the exposure did little good; for similar methods, and evidence-ignoring on a much larger scale, were used through whole volumes of so-called history.

It is interesting in this connection to remember that

Charles Thomson, the Secretary of the Continental Congress during the Revolution, wrote a history of that event; and his position and acquaintance with leading characters must certainly have given him valuable information. But he burnt the manuscript, giving as a reason that its publication would give too much offense to persons still living. He wished to quiet down everything, forget the horrible scenes, controversies and factions, and build up the country. Certainly a most laudable motive; but we must not now in these days be misled by it and accept as history all those standard volumes which when analyzed are nothing but concealment of actual facts for the sake of helping the nation.

We must hasten, however, to the third cause of the trouble, and that was that the first history of the Revolution which all the others have followed and copied was an English whig partisan argument.

The English whig party were in a peculiar position during the Revolution, with a rebellion on hand that seemed likely to rend the British Empire asunder. They were in a very small minority, overwhelmingly outvoted on every subject. They adopted as their policy for the American War, the principle, or rather supposition, that if the troops were all withdrawn from the colonies and no attempt made to coerce them, the Americans would voluntarily submit to be ruled by England and form an ideal spectacle of uncoerced colonies willingly and gladly remaining under the tutelage of their mother.

It was a beautiful ideal as developed by the great whig orators, Burke, Chatham and Barré, illustrated from history and art, and dignified by passionate appeals to sentiment and manhood. Their speeches have become classics of the English language and have been recited for a hundred years by our school boys. Those orations with others by the lesser whig lights to be found in the parliamentary debates, together with the whole whig policy, were, of course, very acceptable to our people. The whigs were continually asserting that our people did not want independence; they besought mild and conciliatory measures for us; they attacked the tory measures; and so far as they succeeded in checking in this way the tory policy of coercion, they aided us in obtaining independence.

This history of the Revolution from the whig point of view was written almost as rapidly as the events occurred, not only in the whig speeches, but in the *Annual Register*, an important publication of that time, still in existence, which summed up the political and diplomatic occurrences of the year both at home and abroad as they affected England. After the Revolution was ended and people began to think of writing an account of it, they found that it was the easiest thing in the world to do. Just get down the volumes of the *Annual Register* and there it all was for each of the seventeen years of the long controversy; each year by itself clearly and cogently written; for the *Annual Register* had employed the great whig orator Edmund Burke to write these summaries every year. Burke was very careful with his dates, facts and statements so far as he chose to go and the

Register enjoyed a high reputation in that respect. But the statements were all whig statements; no others were admitted; no facts unfavorable to the whig line of policy were admitted; and every fact and statement was given the tinge and leaning of the whig policy.

Those summaries running for seventeen years in the *Register* and the speeches of the whig orators were the material that the early historians of the Revolution used. Gordon, who wrote the first important and widely read history of the Revolution, copied page after page of the *Register* verbatim, and says so in his preface to the first English edition. Those whig speeches and summaries gave the tone, the point of view and the limitations, and fixed them so rigidly that the great mass of evidence outside of those limitations has always been rejected; and when now obtruded on the public in even the mildest form, is received with staring and sometimes indignant incredulity.

I am certainly very glad that the whigs adopted the line of policy that has been described. It was a great help to our cause; and it may have been good for the whig party or at any rate the best they could do under the circumstances. But to make that mere partisan position the basis and limitation for writing history is the rankest absurdity that was ever heard of. Even as a political policy, the whig plan was a mere dream that could never be carried out in practice. It was a legal and political impossibility and contrary to common sense. There was no such thing, there never was and there never will be such a thing as a community of Americans voluntarily submitting to the absolute supremacy of a parliament three thousand miles across the Atlantic. The tory majority tried a large part of the whig plan without success. They tried conciliation and found it a failure. They repealed the stamp act and the paint, paper and glass act very early in the controversy. They made no attempt to enforce either act with troops and had scarcely any troops in the country at that time. But the colonists, instead of becoming more submissive felt more conscious of their power and became more independent. In 1778 the tories offered to repeal practically all objectionable legislation and make a compromise that would be just short of absolute independence; but the American patriots rejected this offer as they had rejected all other attempts at conciliation that did not offer absolute independence.

If the whigs had been in power during the revolution there is no reason to suppose they would have been any more successful in conciliating the Americans than were the tories; and it is probable that they would not even have attempted to put their idealism into practice. In the Canadian rebellion of 1837 they were in power, but they suppressed that rebellion with a high hand, hanged and banished the ringleaders, did not withdraw troops, and did not rely on voluntary submission. Their idealism in the Revolution was mere minority eloquence. It is one thing to advocate an ideal theory when you are in a hopeless minority and not responsible for results, and quite another thing to put such a theory in force when you

are in the majority and in power which you wish to retain.

The whig partisan policy is such a narrow point of view for writing history, that in order to maintain it and stay within it you must leave out of consideration and either conceal or ignore more than half the evidence and testimony of the eye witnesses and contemporary documents of the Revolution. You must write the Revolution merely as the English whigs saw it, or professed to see it for party purposes. You must omit large masses of evidence that have been found in both America and England. You must ignore the testimony and arguments of the tories who from the point of view of impartial history are entitled to exactly the same consideration as witnesses as the whigs and patriots. You must ignore and vilify the testimony and arguments of the loyalists, who, if history is to be anything more than falsehood agreed upon, are entitled to exactly the same consideration as witnesses as the patriots, whigs and tories.

The whig point of view ignores completely the whole mass of evidence coming from the tories and the loyalists and does not accept all the evidence coming from the patriots. As the whigs were always trying to show that the patriot party in America did not really want independence, but would be content with a compromise, they accepted no evidence that did not accord with that view.

All through the Revolution the English whigs sneered at the loyalists, rejected all their statements, and were only a step behind the patriots in condemnation of them. It seems now a little contemptible, this merciless whig condemnation of the loyalists who were trying to save the same empire which the whigs professed to have a remedy for saving. At the close of the Revolution, when the treaty of peace was signed, a section of the whig party shifted their ground, took up the cause of the loyalists and attacked the ministry for making a treaty of peace which abandoned the loyalists to the mercy of the patriots.

If you confine yourself to the whig limitation, you must not only ignore the great mass of information about the loyalists, but you must also ignore the military strategy of the war, scarcely noticed in our histories, but, as Mr. Adams shows, almost as important and interesting as the campaigns of Napoleon.

The great controversy over General Howe's motives and military conduct fills the first three years of the evidence of the war, appearing in pamphlets, letters and charges against him and finally, in the voluminous evidence of his trial or investigation by Parliament. This great mass of evidence about Howe, very familiar to the people of that time, but unnoticed in our histories, gives us entirely new views and ideas of the situation. Another controversy carried on with the greatest acrimony between Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, and also unnoticed in our histories, gives us an entirely new understanding of the last three years of the war and its final issue.

Then there is much unused evidence about the actual position and services of France, not to mention

Spain, and Holland. There are scores of old pamphlets which show the actual arguments exchanged between the two countries on the constitutional power of Parliament in the argumentative period of the contest 1764-1774. There is the evidence about the violation of the navigation and trade laws, and about the admiralty courts. All this evidence our standard histories fail to bring to light and explain.

They give us no adequate understanding of the dozen acts of Parliament which the patriot colonists wished repealed. They never explain the full meaning of that demand of the colonists that England should never keep soldiers in a colony in time of peace, except by the consent of the colony, that England should not change or amend a colonial charter except by the consent of the colony. They do not even explain, they hardly even notice the demand by the patriots that Parliament should have no authority in the colonies or in relation to them except to regulate ocean commerce. They do not explain what the colonists meant when they said that they were willing to be ruled by the king alone. They do not compare these demands with the modern British colonial system to see whether any of them have, in modern times, been accepted by England as proper methods of colonial government.

The most curious fact about the whig and *Annual Register* method of writing our history is that in the end the English Tories accepted it as the safest and best way of describing the old controversy. Most of the evidence relating to the Revolution was a very serious matter for Englishmen to handle, no matter whether their political views were Tory or Whig. England still had colonies, expected to have more and to go on building up a great and obedient imperial empire. The Whigs in their way believed in that empire as much as the Tories and gladly accepted all the profits and advantages of it. Would it be wise for English writers, whether Tory, Whig or "impartial," to tell the English people that the American patriot party had from the beginning hated and detested what is to this day the foundation principle of the British Empire, namely, the supremacy of Parliament as absolute and omnipotent in every colony as it is in London; that they despised colonialism from the bottom of their hearts; that they believed it to be unmanly and degrading political slavery, and that the only definition of a colony that they accepted, was one which described a community like the old Greek colonies, sent out by a mother country with the intention that it should become absolutely independent, and that the mother country's only duty towards it would be to protect it from other nations and guarantee its independence?

That an English writer should describe the Revolution in this way and be compelled to admit that the American patriots had broken away from the British Empire because they despised its foundation principle, was, and is, a great deal to expect of English nature or of human nature. Neither English Tories nor Whigs care to describe the Revolution as it occurred; and it is hardly fair to expect them to do it. Why should they deliberately excite their present

colonies and their great and profitable East Indian Empire to rebel and justify their rebellion. Is it not evidently much better to say with the Whigs that the American patriots dearly loved England and the British Empire; that they were contented, dutiful and obedient colonists; that they were not only perfectly willing but anxious to remain in the empire and share its profits and glory of world wide conquest; that their leaving the empire was a mere accident brought about by the blindness, stupidity, and wickedness of a certain Tory ministry, or, as some later writers have put it, by the blindness, stupidity and self-will of the King, George III., who of himself, against the wishes of his ministry, parliament, and the English people, drove the Americans out of the empire, when they were perfectly willing to stay within it.

The first important history of the Revolution after Burke's annual summaries in the *Register*, was a four-volume work by John Andrews, LL.D., published in 1786. It followed the same lines as Burke's essays in the *Annual Register*, except that it gives much space to stating both sides of the arguments in Parliament, but in such a tiresome, verbose way, that it is almost unreadable. Andrews had no historic ability, no interpretative power; was a mere dull chronicler and summarizer. He cites no evidence or authorities, and keeps on the safe side of mere ordinary dates and events. The great mass of actual evidence; the position, the doings, the arguments of the loyalists, the causes which led to the Revolution, the real conditions in America, the navigation and trade laws, the strategy of battles, the controversy over General Howe's conduct of the war, his trial before Parliament, the Clinton-Cornwallis controversy over the final strategy—these and a host of other actualities, one would never learn anything about from the pages of John Andrews, LL.D.

In 1787 a very ambitious and laborious account of the Revolution appeared by the Rev. William Gordon, an English Whig, and Congregationalist minister, who had come out to Massachusetts early in the difficulties and remained with us all through the Revolution, interviewing generals and prominent men, visiting battlefields, examining private papers and public records and collecting notes and materials. When the war ended, he returned to England and wrote his history.

He was not altogether liked in America. John Adams said he talked too much, and that his history in attempting to favor both sides was a failure. But he seems to have been trusted with important papers, and he was unquestionably very painstaking and accurate. Many of the papers which he examined in manuscript, notably in the year 1775, have been published in the American Archives and confirm his statements. No one has given us a better detailed contemporary account of the Battles of Fort Mifflin and Red Bank. But he had no historic ability. He follows the *Annual Register* as a basis for a great part of his information, copying from it without changing the language, and announces in his preface that he has done so. He stays cautiously within the Whig limits of safety already described. The remaining British

colonies would not be stirred to rebellion by anything he says. But as a chronicler who lived amidst the events of the Revolution, his work is of some value as a piece of original partisan evidence.

In 1789 Dr. Ramsay, of South Carolina, who had written about the Revolution, in his own State, brought out a general history of the Revolution, which strange to say, rejected in some respects the guidance of the whigs and the *Annual Register* and in this respect stands alone. He seems to understand that the dispute between America and England was irreconcilable, and could never have been settled by conciliation. He does not regard England's conduct toward the colonies as a mere mistake of a ministry, nor did he regard it as the affair of the king, but as a deliberate movement of an overwhelming majority in Parliament heartily supported by the aristocracy, the country gentry and the ruling classes, to consolidate the empire and bring the colonies under stricter regulations. He showed that under the old system the colonists had grown accustomed to semi-independence, and now were bent on absolute independence. But his method of writing was so obscure and tedious, and he gave himself so little room, that his book could never have much effect.

Any influence he might have had was soon overwhelmed and forgotten by the historical works of a writer of the highest order of popularity, and in that sense and influence the ablest historian we have ever produced. Prescott, Motley and Parkman are mere children when compared with him.

The truth is that Americans had no book about their great political events that was easy to read until 1800, when the Rev. Mason L. Weems came to their rescue with his "Life of Washington," followed by lives of Franklin and Marion. Parson Weems, as he was called, was, it is said, a preacher of large family and slender means, who had charge of a church in Virginia, near Mount Vernon. To support his family he became a travelling book agent for Matthew Carey, of Philadelphia. He wrote books of his own, and sold them in his wagon journeys through the country. He was ready with a sermon, an harangue, or a stump speech, wherever he could draw a crowd; and he would then recommend his wares and sell them from his wagon. He played well on the fiddle, and was in demand at social gatherings and dances. He must have been an entertaining fellow in his way, and I should like to have seen him on some of his tours through the South.

For a generation and more, his books, especially his "Life of Washington," had an enormous sale, and went through over forty editions. They were necessarily histories of the revolution. His ideas on that event reached every corner of the country and every class of life; and the publishers tell me his "Life of Washington" still sells. Reckless in statement, indifferent to facts and research, his books are full of popular heroism, religion and morality, which you at first call trash and cant, and then, finding it extremely entertaining, you declare with a laugh, as you lay down the book, what a clever rogue.

It is impossible to refrain from quoting from him.

He is a most delightful mixture of the Scriptures, Homer, Virgil and the back woods. Everything rages and storms, slashes and tears. At the passage of the stamp act "the passion of the people flew up 500 degrees above blood heat." In battle Americans and English plunge their bayonets into one another's breasts and "fall forward together faint, shrieking in death and mingling their smoking blood." Here is his description of Morgan at the last battle of Saratoga:

"The face of Morgan was like the full moon in a stormy night when she looks down red and fiery on the raging deep, amidst foundering wrecks and cries of drowning seamen; while his voice like thunder on the hills was heard loud shouting his cavalry to the charge."

"Far-famed Britannica," Weems says, "was sitting alone and tearful on her Western cliff, while, with downcast looks, her faithful lion lay roaring at her feet." And we must have one more from his description of the Battle of the Cowpens:

"As when a mammoth suddenly dashes in among a thousand buffaloes, feeding at large on the vast plains of Missouri; all at once the innumerable herd, with wildly rolling eyes and hideous bellowings, break forth into flight, while close at their heels the roaring monster follows. Earth trembles as they fly. Such was the noise in the chase of Tarleton, when the swords of Washington's cavalry pursued his troops from the famous fields of the Cowpens."

It is in vain that the historians, the exhaustive investigators, the learned, and the accurate rail at him or ignore him. He is inimitable. He will live forever. He captured the American people. He was the first to catch their ear. He said exactly what they wanted to hear. He has been read a hundred times more than all the other historians and biographers of the Revolution put together. He fastened his methods so firmly upon the country that the learned historians must, in their own dull and lifeless way, conform as far as possible to his ideas or they will be neither read nor tolerated.

Out of the social, genial, card-playing, fox-hunting Washington, Weems manufactured the sanctimonious wooden image, the Sunday School lay figure, which Washington still remains for most of us, in spite of all the learned efforts of Owen Wister, Senator Lodge and Paul Leicester Ford. Weems was a myth-maker of the highest rank and skill and the greatest practical success. Of the Revolution itself he made a Homeric and Biblical combat of giants, titans and mammoths against the unfathomable corruption and wickedness of about a dozen dragons and fiends calling themselves King and Ministry in England.

He goes back wholly to the whigs and the *Annual Register*. The people of England, everyone on that blessed island, except the dozen ministerial fiends, were, he assures us, a noble, kindly, gentle race. He knew them well; he had lived among them when he studied theology; and they did not make war on the Americans. They would not have thought of such a thing; they disapproved of the war. As for the

American colonists, though giants and mammoths when aroused, they were also a gentle people, most loving and obedient to the mother country, anxious to remain with her, had not war been cruelly made upon them.

And why then was cruel war made upon them? Simply, says Parson Weems, because "the king wanted money for his hungry relations, and the ministers stakes for their gaming tables or diamond necklaces for their mistresses."

There it is in its crudest form, the ministerial explanation of the Revolution, the most popular, short, easy and practical explanation of the great event that could be devised. It reveals nothing about the real issue at stake between the two countries; nothing about the question of the supremacy of Parliament or the other great principles involved. But it pleased vast numbers of people because as expressed by Weems, they could grasp it instantly; it appealed to their suspicions of what the effete monarchies across the Atlantic really were. Expressed in different language with a few political and more refined ideas substituted for the diamond necklaces and hungry relations, it pleased the half loyalist element which still remained in the country, and it pleased a certain class among the patriots who wanted to be able to admire England, her literature, her laws, her social customs, the charming lives of her country gentry, the hedge rows and green fields, and the fashion of London. They could admire and love all these things, have social pleasures with distinguished Englishmen, talk about the Anglo-Saxon race, its glories and conquests, and yet remain true Americans, because the Revolution had been a mere ministerial war, a ministerial accident, unconnected with the rest of England, and such an accident could never happen again.

We might dispose of all the subsequent histories of the Revolution by simply saying that they followed along in this short and easy method. Even Chief Justice Marshall in his *Life of Washington* published in 1804, though once or twice disposed to break away, trots along in the same old rut.

In 1809 quite a popular history of the Revolution appeared in French, which went through twenty editions in Europe. It was written by Charles Botta of Northern Italy, who had been a surgeon in the French army, and was appointed by Napoleon on the commission to govern the Italian republic he established. It was made up, the author himself tells us, from the *Annual Register*, other histories, the parliamentary debates and pamphlets. But it is all *Annual Register*, and so dull that a modern reader has difficulty in getting through a single chapter. The American translation went through ten editions. Adams and Jefferson, who were still alive, praised it highly. The popularity of such a tedious compilation is hard to understand, unless it was that our people were pleased because it was a French and Italian defence of our Revolution and institutions.

Hildreth's "History of the United States," published in 1849, devoted parts of the third and fourth volumes to the Revolution. It was a carefully-written

work, in much better style than its predecessors, and is still pleasant to read, but was a conventional chronicle within the established lines.

It was quickly followed by two other histories, one by Lord Mahon and one by George Bancroft. Lord Mahon, afterwards Lord Stanhope, was a man of distinction in English politics and literature, founder of the National Portrait Gallery and closely associated with the amendment of the English copyright law and the Historical Manuscripts Commission. His "History of England," from 1713 to 1783, came out a volume at a time, between the years 1846 and 1853. In the last three of the seven volumes it touched upon the Revolution. It was the first account of that great event written in a style of any literary merit; and Lord Mahon's style possessed great merit. Without the slightest attempt at the eloquence or rhetoric supposed by some to be necessary for history, he relies on mere clearness and aptness of words to convey the ideas of a very cultivated and intelligent mind. Every page of it is interesting, and it likely to remain so for all time. As a history of England, it is full of information, especially of the prominent characters of the time; but as an account of our Revolution, it touches only the surface. He goes no deeper than to say that the loss of the colonies was a mere accidental piece of foolishness on the part of the ministry; and having started with that position, his pleasing narrative keeps within the lines of safety.

In 1852 Bancroft's "History of the United States" reached the Revolutionary period. It had been coming out a volume at a time since 1832. Bancroft was of Massachusetts origin, and studied in Germany, where, perhaps, he over-educated and over-Germanized himself. He traveled extensively, met distinguished men, became Secretary of the Navy, and founded the Naval Academy at Annapolis. He was also minister from the United States to England and to Germany. It was a splendid experience, and one would naturally expect from him something of broader gauge than his very cramped and bitter partisan account of the Revolution.

It was the most violently partisan and timorously defensive history of the Revolution that had appeared. It was most cautiously written, with the greatest dread of the slightest admission, and with intense straining to make out a perfect case. Entirely devoid of candor, his fierce assaults on the character of Governor Hutchinson, his assignment to him of every contemptible motive, his sweeping condemnation and ignoring of the loyalists, and his omission of everything that did not support the English whig theory, have made his work more violently and narrowly one-sided than the partisan pamphlets of the period of which he was writing.

His early volumes, dealing with the discovery of the continent and the colonial period were much better than those relating to the Revolution. He restored to remembrance many important points in colonial history, which, for want of an adequate account had been forgotten. But in the Revolution

he became merely a scholarly Weems, carrying to exaggeration the worst features of Weems and Botto.

In his treatment of the Writs of Assistance, he declaims against the decision of the Massachusetts court allowing them, as contrary to the law and the constitution and cowardly subserviency to the British Government. But the decision was perfectly sound law, as Judge Gray, of the Supreme Court shows in his admirable investigation of the subject; and until we recognize it as sound and investigate from that point of view, we shall never get any farther in the history of the Revolution than mere demagogism and declamation. In his volumes on the colonial period, Bancroft made in footnotes a number of citations to the original evidence, and some when he reached the Revolution. But those for the Revolution were very inadequate; and in subsequent editions, for his work had a wide circulation, the citations for the Revolutionary part grew less and less until in the end they disappear almost altogether, and he gives no references for his innumerable quotations. His researches for material both in this country and in Europe are described by his friends as the most remarkable ever made. Documents and sources of information closed to all others were, we are assured, open to him. But strange to say, we see no result of this in his published work. Nor can any subsequent investigator profit by his labors; the wondrous and mysterious sources of information remain mysterious; and many of his opinions are difficult to support with the evidence which investigators are able to find.

This practice of not giving the evidence in footnote citations has been characteristic of all our histories, and is, indeed, quite necessary and proper when the essential principle is that the greater part of the original evidence must be ignored. The habit of citation once begun, might be carried too far.

Fiske, whose volumes on the Revolution have been published since the Civil War, makes no citations of the original evidence. Possibly he has forestalled criticism in this respect by the statement in the preface to his illustrated edition, that his work is a mere historical sketch. But it is two volumes containing some seven hundred pages, confident and positive in tone. For the sources of his material he refers us to Winsor's "Handbook of the Revolution," and the notes of the "Narrative and Critical History of America." But he might just as well have referred us to the card catalogues of the public libraries. Such a general reference means nothing; and a very large part of the material contained in Winsor's "Handbook" and in the "Narrative and Critical History" is made up of commentaries on the Revolution, which are becoming more and more numerous as time goes on. We have not yet learned in this country to distinguish sharply between the original evidence and the subsequent commentaries. Our histories are usually written from the commentaries which are numerous, more accessible, more full of suggestion of all sorts, and easier to write from and understand than the original evidence.

Fiske's account of the Revolution was, however, superior to all previous histories because it contains

practically all that Bancroft and the rest contain much better expressed. It would be difficult to improve on Fiske's style of writing for clearness, beauty and readableness. Bancroft attempted the old-fashioned rhetorical style, which, in his hands, ran to turgidity and bombast. Oratorical dignity, the style that has been so often applied with success to Greek and Roman history, is probably inadequate, in any hands, to the economical, legal and constitutional, the prosaic, plebeian and democratic struggle, which took place in America. Lord Mahon's style was far better than the classic oratorical; and Fiske's is the best of all.

Fiske was an extreme admirer of Gladstone, the English liberal party, its predecessor the whig party, and the whole system of the British Empire. At almost every step he brings in this admiration for England; "her glorious records of a thousand years," and her dominion "on which the sun shall never set." If Gladstone had been alive in 1776, he and Washington would have settled the whole difficulty amicably, the English-speaking race would not have been divided, and the United States would, in some wonderfully sweet way, have remained British colonies, and part of the British Empire, the great civilizer of the world. That is the keynote of his history; and it is all written within that limitation. No one has so glorified and enlarged the old whig and *Annual Register* idea.

He limits himself and narrows his point of view still more by assigning the obstinacy of the king and his love of personal government as the cause of all the difficulty. The king deceived and forced the ministry, Parliament and the English people, and kept them deceived and forced during eleven years of argument and eight years of war.

This one-man explanation of great political events is a cheap and easy historical device of very wide application. It is very dramatic and from a literary point of view, very telling and interesting. Fiske varies it and makes it more dramatic by assuring us that the person who put the wickedness into the head of George III was Charles Townshend.

That is a very pretty and interesting touch, to have Mephistopheles whispering in the ear of the one man. Botta, who also had the one-man idea, said that the devil who did the whispering was Lord Bute. And, indeed, the devil might be varied indefinitely, because there were so many people suggesting those ideas at that time. The editor of the *Boston Gazette* may have been the devil; for Townshend's main idea can be found in the pages of that journal long before Townshend promulgated it. If Mr. Fiske and his followers will admit that there were many million devils comprising the majority of the Parliament and people of England together with the loyalists in America all whispering and some talking very loud for the encouragement of George III, the one-man theory will become comparatively harmless.

If modern comprehensive investigation aided by improved libraries and collections has established anything, it is that the prominent or great individuals, while undoubtedly valuable, are more apt to be the

results and outcome of political movements than the causes of them. The Revolution was a world movement forced on by the thoughts of millions of people. Its beginnings extend far back of 1764, and George III merely swam in the current. In the face of all the accumulated evidence of its workings, to assign the responsibility for it to one man may do well enough for eulogistic biography or oratory; but is hardly admissible in history, if history is to be anything more serious than the latest novel.

Lecky's "History of England in the Eighteenth Century," of course, touches slightly on our Revolution, and here we certainly have a man of strong intellect dealing with the subject. As might be expected, he kicks over the traces and refuses to be bound by the ridiculous limitations of the school of Bancroft and Fiske. We find him stating the point of view of the loyalists, describing their large numbers and the factious turmoil of the times with that refreshing boldness, impartiality and instinctive love of truth which have made the author of the "History of Rationalism in Europe" one of the heroes of civilization and a terror to ecclesiastical humbugs. He cites his authorities in footnotes like a real historian; he deals largely with the original authorities; and one can learn more about those authorities in his brief account than from all previous histories of the Revolution put together. Unfortunately, however, he deals with our Revolution only incidentally, touching on it, and coming back to it again farther on. To have gone into it thoroughly would have thrown his work out of proportion. His sound method, therefore, does not have chance and space enough to bring to the surface all that should be brought.

In recent years another history of the Revolution, not yet completed, but very voluminous, by Sir George Otto Trevelyan, has been appearing in England, a volume at a time. Mr. Trevelyan is remembered for his admirable "Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay," published nearly forty years ago, and for his subsequent life of admiration of Charles James Fox, the brilliant whig orator in Parliament at the time of our Revolution. The life of Fox treated only of that statesman's early years; and in his preface to the history Mr. Trevelyan explains that he finds he can write the rest of Fox's life only by writing a history of the American Revolution, about which Fox so often spoke in Parliament.

It hardly accords with an American's idea of the dignity of that event to see it regarded as mere illustrative material for the biography of a very reckless and insolvent gambler, who, however able he may have been as a minority speaker in Parliament, and however interesting he may still be to all of us, was no means the most effective statesman England has produced. Our sense of proportion is somewhat outraged by the exaltation of the gambler through six volumes of the American Revolution, with more to come.

At the same time it must be confessed that from a literary point of view, and in Mr. Trevelyan's skilful hands, the sacrifice of history to an overestimate of

a picturesque character keeps his readers interested and amused. The volumes are full of anecdote, reminiscence, political and literary gossip of the intellectual sort; and the best parts of the work are the descriptions of English life and conditions in that age. The diffuseness of the style seems to an American less suitable to history than Fiske's matchless brevity and ease, and it is far inferior in intellect, keenness and humor to the style of Mr. Charles Francis Adams. But Mr. Trevelyan is a delightful master of telling idioms and clever phrasing, which have placed him where he is in English literature.

He is a distinguished member of the English liberal party, and this, with his natural sympathy for that party's predecessors, the old whigs and for his picturesque gambler, combined with the necessity for not saying anything to impair modern British control of colonies, forces his book into the most narrow form of the Weems ministerial explanation.

As an attack upon the tory ministry of that period, nothing probably will ever equal the accumulated force, the massing of details, the sweeping condemnation and the charm of language of Mr. Trevelyan's work. The unfortunate ministry is overwhelmed and buried under a mass of disapprobation that exceeds in weight and volume all that Fox and all that all the other whig orators ever said against them. Every fact, every inference, every delicate insinuation that lapse of time, historical perspective and the labor of years can bring together, is heaped upon them. Their depravity, malignity, and stupidity are unspeakable, especially when contrasted with the enlightened virtue and perfection of Fox and the whigs. It is perfectly obvious that the American colonies were lost merely by the peculiar circumstances of the cruelty and absurdity of this extraordinary ministry, the like of which in infamy has never been known before or since. That is all there is in the American Revolution; and it is also quite evident that if the plans of Fox and the whigs had been carried out, those affectionate and long-suffering colonists who dearly loved the British Empire would have remained in it in some ideal and friendly relation, which is not definitely described.

Mr. Trevelyan is not impressed by the difference between the original contemporary evidence and the subsequent innumerable commentaries or secondary authorities. He cites one as readily as the other; and his investigations into the original evidence appear to have been very moderate. He ignores the greater part of it. The secondary authorities suit him better, because they support the ministerial explanation. Except for the descriptions of English life and manners, his work is largely made up from the commentators. It is melancholy that a man of so much talent should surrender himself body and soul to this old stupidity of forever rewriting the Revolution from the accumulating opinions of commentators, which move farther and farther away from the evidence; and now Mr. Trevelyan's six or a dozen volumes must be thrown into the mass to be re-hashed for another progress away from the original evidence.

Within the last year or so, however, there has appeared an English history of the Revolution by the Rev. Mr. Belcher, which shows a most decided familiarity with the original evidence and an equally decided determination to jump out of the old whig and *Annual Register* rut. He is the first Englishman since Lecky's time that has been willing to admit that there is a great mass of loyalist evidence. He gives his book an entirely correct title, and calls it "The First American Civil War." He is rather an interesting and clever phrase-maker, after the manner that has been popular in England for some time. But he runs on too much into mere political gossip, unrelated details, and his book, in consequence, lacks logical sequence; an inevitable defect, some will say, in a man of religion. But no matter about that, and no matter about his taking a very John Bull point of view, and safeguarding John's face and colonial possessions. He has jumped out of the old rut. He is in the original evidence; and for that heaven be praised even if he only flounders in it.

Since the above paragraph was written, my attention has been called to an article in *Blackwood's Magazine* (March, 1912, p. 409), attacking with very considerable severity and ridicule the absurdity of continuing to write the history of the American Revolution from the narrowness of the old whig point of view. It is mere "senseless panegyric," the writer says. As a piece of history "it belongs to the dark ages"; it represents the views of the desperate whigs

which will never again be expressed by a serious historian.

Why be so scared and timorous about the original evidence, and why conceal it. After the first plunge and shock of the cold water is over, you will enjoy it. The real Revolution is more useful and interesting than the make believe one. The actual factions, divisions, mistakes, atrocities, if you please, are far more useful to know about than the pretense that there were none. The real patriots who hated colonialism and alien rule in any form, and who were determined to break from the empire no matter how well it governed them, are more worthy of admiration than those supposed "affectionate colonists," who, we are assured, if they had been a little more coddled by England, would have kept America in the empire to this day.

There has recently been some discussion in the newspapers on the hopelessness of all efforts to make good plays, or even good novels, out of the scenes of our struggle for independence. Why should our Revolution, it is asked, be so totally barren in dramatic incident and dramatic use and some other revolutions so rich in that use. May it not be because our Revolution has been so steadily and persistently written away from the actual occurrences, that novelists and play writers when they search for material find a scholastic, academic revolution that never happened and that is barren of all the traits of human nature?¹

The Basis of Historical Teaching

BY SAMUEL BURNETT HOWE, PLAINFIELD (N. J.) HIGH SCHOOL.

In these days, when eminent authorities are demanding that the schools justify their courses of study and simplify their methods, it behooves us, as teachers of history, to consider carefully the fundamentals of our science, and to be prepared to meet any objection which may be raised by these critics to our present courses, even, if need be, to the extent of accepting the current demand for the practical in education. We have secured a prominent place in secondary education for the subject we love, and we must be ready at all times so to mould our presentation thereof, that we can best serve the needs of our communities. What then shall be the basis of our historical teaching?

This leads us to ask the value, first of history in general, second of the courses usually offered. I take it that history is not merely an information study, because we no longer contend that it is possible to produce any lasting benefits in the growing mind, by packing it with more or less unrelated facts; nor is it merely a disciplinary mental exercise, for other subjects admittedly have greater value in this connection. It seems evident, then, that the value of history is more closely bound up in the mysterious word culture. What do we mean by this?

Among other things, we mean insight into character, a training of sympathetic judgment, a usable comprehension of the principles on which the every day affairs of this life are being conducted, a freedom from provincial prejudice and narrow political bias, the inspiration of moral force and of a purified patriotism, and a thorough understanding of society. As Dr. Bourne says, "History must reveal to the child a greater consciousness of what he is himself," an understanding which comes only by comparison and contrast with other selves.

Perhaps we should not try to extract each ingredient of this subtle perfume—culture. We do not pretend that history study will enable us, at first glance, to recognize the shallow and the unsound member of society. Yet the student of history is better equipped to do this, than is a man who has no knowledge of the lives of others. History cannot produce an infallibility of judgment,—its facts are too little related; yet the impressions left by the story of past achievements are the stuff out of which the mind will weave the premises of its reasoning. History study may be, and often is, carried on with utter lack of sympathy with every day conditions, and with a contemptuous indifference to the great problem of modern life. While we have seen the sectional prejudice and misplaced patriotism which a distorted viewpoint in his-

¹NOTE.—Mr. Fisher's paper was read before the American Philosophical Society on April 18, 1912.

tory will give, and as Dr. Eliot says, "The result is unethical," yet the proper study of history can give superior ethical training.

In turning from a consideration of the general uses of history study, to examine the relative importance of the courses we offer, we must consider the modernly humanistic culture, and ask ourselves what should be the basis of our course of study, in order to attain that desired end most advantageously. Is it not almost a truism that interest is this basis; that those periods of history which have the most practical appeal create the greatest interest in the mind of the student? I do not question that a skilful teacher, who possesses a certain amount of magnetic force and dramatic ability, can so re-create any given group of men and their deeds, that the class will follow with breathless interest and derive great benefits. With such a teacher, the days of Pericles can be as great a source of inspiration to the class, as a consideration of any important modern problem. Were all teachers equally filled with divine fire, the need for the consideration of the periods most profitable for study would not be so pressing, but, as things are, there is abundant reason to justify the constantly increasing emphasis placed on recent history. This re-organization of the amount of time spent proportionately upon early European History on the one hand, and upon recent European History on the other; upon the story of the beginnings of our own nation, and upon the development of modern problems of national life, I believe is amply justified by the increase in interest and efficiency, not only among the students, but even in the teaching force.

It is not a purely selfish motive, of which some might accuse me, which prompts me to express a strong hope, that more and more, our schools will make a thorough trial of the recommendations of the Committee of Five, in respect to Modern History. Of course, a vast number of schools will be prevented from doing so, as long as the colleges remain unsympathetic. Yet, everywhere we receive evidences that the broad-minded men at the head of those institutions are more and more ready to co-operate with the secondary schools in the matter of entrance requirements. Many secondary schoolmen lower the requirements in this department for graduation from a secondary school to the standard of one year's work in Ancient History, now favored by some colleges for entrance. It does not seem entirely reasonable that a study of Greek and Roman History only should be the minimum requirement for entrance to college. As a basis for the course of study in history many will favor the requirement of a thorough two years' course in general European History, with a special emphasis shifted from the ancient to the modern period, and a one year's course in American History, with fully half of the time spent on the last 60 years of our national development, together with as broad a grasp of the economic and social life of the people as the mind of the high school student is capable of obtaining.

Another phase of this subject is, what should be the basis of the relations between the historical teach-

ing of the college and the high school? That the college has a right to lay out its own courses is an uncontrovertible fact; that the high school should have an equal privilege seems a fair proposition, if we assume that those in charge of high school affairs are gifted with ordinary intelligence. But when the classical department of the college forces itself upon the history department of the secondary school, by using its influence to compel retention of a requirement in Ancient History, it seems as if the right basis of such a relationship is not ordinarily well served. The community has a right to expect that the student who has completed his high school course will have sufficient mental training to undertake successfully higher education, but as a large percentage of the entire enrollment of our high schools everywhere never enters a university door, and instead goes out into the business world, the community has a greater right to expect that the high school student will be equipped in the most practical way for his life work.

This demand for vocational instead of a general classical education is everywhere winning its way. It is with gratification that we examine the effect of this demand on our history courses. Recently, a New Jersey high school, which gives more attention to history than to any other subject save English, was refused the certificate privilege, by one of the eastern women's colleges, on the ground that the courses offered by the school did not conform to the entrance requirement of the college, when the same college does accept and certificate other schools which give three-fifths as much solid work in history as the school in question. An appeal was taken to the president of the college, inquiring whether he wished to stand, personally, sponsor for such scholastic methods and requirements, and a very gratifying response was received. A college has the right to ask that candidates for admission shall present a sufficient training in history to be qualified to continue their researches under the more difficult conditions of the college course. This power can be obtained without sacrificing the current demand for the practical in education. In short, the proper historical attitude of the mind may be gained from the study of modern history, as surely as from a study of ancient times. The minute you prescribe to a teacher, no matter what his personal convictions are, that he must cover a certain period with a certain outline, and employing only certain methods, you are beginning to impair his usefulness, by destroying that element of originality, which is latent within him.

I believe that the true basis of relationship between college and secondary school history should be that of mutual helpfulness. The secondary school will help the college more by creating a proper historical attitude, than by vainly attempting to pack into the student's mind the subject matter of any particular historical epoch. All the college can do in the way of co-operation is to accept work which the responsible school certifies as satisfactory to it. As an instance of the failure so to co-operate, note these requirements in history, "the candidate for admission in

history will be expected to present one major and one minor; the majors, A—Greek and Roman, B—English and American—the minors, English and European." Now, compare the requirements with the possibilities of a high school course in history. You will note that Greek and Roman history, which are almost everywhere given to the immature entering class, are gravely considered as an entire equivalent to English and American History, which, in a vast number of schools, following the recommendations of The Committee of Seven, furnish work for the last two years of the high school course. These are sample requirements well-known to you all. How can secondary school teachers feel that the colleges are co-operating with them as long as such conditions exist?

Nor can the colleges assume their erstwhile dictator-

ial position in secondary education, and say coldly, "These are our requirements, meet them, or stay out." The great ground swell will move them from that position. The demand for the practical in education, which is largely making over our high school, will transform it into the real college of the people, and thus leave to the older institution solely university work.

I believe I speak for many teachers of history, when I urge that a requirement in history, consisting of three recitation hours of prepared work, during each of three high school years, be uniformly adopted for entrance.

Having thus modernized our courses of study, we can safely assume the element of interest, and thus be assured that we have obtained the right basis for our history teaching.¹

American Justice and Emigration in 1784

As Seen by M. Thieriot, of Leipzig

CONTRIBUTED BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

"We're so made that we love

First when we see them painted, things we have passed
Perhaps a hundred times nor cared to see."

As a result of the lively expectations for profitable trade relations excited in Europe by the prospect of American Independence, Mr. Philip Thieriot was, in 1782, appointed by the Saxon Government as Commissioner of Commerce to America. He set sail from Bordeaux in September. After forty days of terrible storms, he was forced to abandon his vessel and take refuge on a fishing boat from Boston which landed him in Guadeloupe, whence he made his way *via* San Domingo to Philadelphia in March, 1784. There he found the hospitality excellent, but the cold intense, the Delaware being still frozen. He remained in the country for about a year, reporting frequently to his government. A few of the more suggestive parts of his letters² to his sovereign follow:

"That which most impresses a foreigner arriving in Philadelphia is the excessive high prices which prevail; he is the more surprised at this because in Europe the states of North America are always represented as rich in flour, beef, woods and in all the necessities of life. The European does not perhaps realize quite sufficiently the immense extent of the country known as the thirteen United States which differ greatly. . . .

"The United States have not yet struck any money of their own; the money here is much like that of Spain; namely, the *piastre forte*, or dollar, as it is called in Philadelphia. This dollar, which is equiva-

lent to one and a third Rix dalers in Saxony . . . is here worth seven (7) shillings, sixpence. . . . In writing money, one uses here the English pound, which is worth twenty shillings; but pounds and shillings are imaginary money only. . . . Each of the thirteen United States has a different method of counting and fixing the value of the money."

Of the administration of justice, he says: "The exercise of justice here is admirable. The guilty may sometimes escape punishment, but there is no instance of the innocent being condemned. A man accused of theft or murder is put in prison, but he is not put in chains, compelled to lie in a foul dungeon or tortured. He is still a citizen; for, although accused, he may be innocent. He is not questioned, because here they do not believe it right that a man should testify against himself. He does not languish in prison."

Thieriot's account of the grand and petit jury we pass over, but his concluding remarks on the subject are of interest. "In order," he says, "not to lose sight of the evidence and the points in the accusation a case once begun is usually carried through without interruption, the result being that a great deal of work is accomplished in a short time and the sessions of the court frequently last till ten o'clock at night."

"If the accused is innocent and entirely exonerated, he is set at liberty, but he is given no indemnity or reparation, he merely mingles with his fellow citizens again. It is a misfortune for him that the evidence against him was so strong, the public welfare demanding that the matter be cleared up. If, however, the arrest was the result of a plot, and if he can prove it, he may bring suit for damages. . . .

"A Frenchman, with the prejudices of his country and accustomed to court sessions in which the officers have imposing robes and a uniform that makes it impossible to recognize them, smiles at seeing in the court room men dressed in street clothes, simple, often quite common. He is astonished to see the public enter

¹ Mr. Howe's paper was read before the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland on November 30, 1912.

² The correspondence with much other material of interest to Americans—cp. American Historical Review, vol. XVIII, April, 1912, p. 517 ff.—is found in the Konigl. Sächs. Hauptstaatsarchiv Loc. 2610. *Acta den Nord Amerikanischen Handel betr.* Vol. II, 1784-1801.

and leave the court room freely, those who prefer even keeping their hats on. But when such a stranger, if he is not superficial or frivolous, has become sufficiently familiar with the language to understand the manner in which the fate of the accused is discussed, to see that under this modest exterior the judges are men proud of their office, full of justice, integrity and intelligence, he cannot but be filled with respect for a constitution which favors the innocent and safeguards the most precious rights of mankind."

Nor will any infringement of these rights be permitted even by the nation's close and powerful ally, to wit:

"It appears that the court of France wished to set up a jurisdiction of its own on this continent for all matters involving French subjects. But that cannot pass here. Only lately the French Consul at Boston, M. de Lescombe, on his own authority had a man put in irons. The sheriff, after all efforts to induce him to release the man, called on the Consul and declared that if he did not set the man free, he would come for M. de Lescombe himself and have him put in prison. As a mark of consideration he would give him one hour to think it over. M. de Lescombe deemed it wise to release his prisoner." . . .

On emigration and the system of indenture associated with it, Thieriot makes some interesting comments. "The great number of emigrants from Europe," he says, "has filled this place (Philadelphia) with worthless persons to such a degree that scarcely a day passes without theft, robbery, or even assassination. . . . The emigrants belong in the main to those who are not able to pay their own passage money, and for this reason, agents in Europe, or the captains of vessels, enter into an agreement with them fixing the cost of their transportation at from 10 to 20 pounds. If, upon his arrival, the emigrant is able to pay the price agreed upon, he is at liberty to go where he wishes; if, on the other hand, he is not, the captain or his agent endeavors to sell him at the price agreed upon. The buyer and the emigrant come to an agreement as to the term of service which the latter is to render to the former. The period is sometimes three years, rarely less than two, and seldom more than seven, according to the ability of the emigrant. The master agrees to pay for the passage, to clothe, and to nourish the servant, and at the expiration of the term of the engagement, to give him a new suit of clothes, suitable to his station. The emigrant, on his part, promises faithfulness, etc. This reciprocal engagement is made before a judge of the peace, and each of the parties has a copy of the contract. The master can neither beat nor maltreat his servant. If he has complaints against him, he can have him put in the workhouse. On the other hand, if there are masters sufficiently indelicate to abuse women domestics thus engaged, these latter have the protection of the law. It is evident, therefore, that this is not slavery in the proper sense of the word, and when one speaks here of selling or buying a man, it is only a question of his time of service.

"It is said that since the beginning of the year, ten thousand of the emigrants coming from Europe have been obliged to indenture themselves, not having the means to pay for their passage. Seven-eighths of them are Irish. The Germans are much esteemed, while the Irish are held in low esteem, because of the considerable number of bad fellows among them."

BOOKS FOR TEACHERS OF ECONOMICS.

Mr. Alexander L. Pugh, of the High School of Commerce, New York City, chairman of the Committee on Economics of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, furnishes us with the following tentative list of twenty-five books for the use of secondary teachers of economics. Mr. Pugh and the editors of the magazine will be interested in receiving comment and criticism upon this list.

Tentative List of Twenty-five Books for Use of Secondary Teachers of Economics.

- Blackmar, F. W.—Economics for High Schools. (Macmillan, 1907).
- Bliss, W. D. P.—Encyclopedia of Social Reform (last ed.). (Funk & Wagnalls, 1908).
- Bullock, C. J.—Selected Readings in Economics. (Ginn, 1907).
- Bullock, C. J.—Elements of Economics. (Silver Burdett, 1905).
- Burch, H. R., and Nearing, S.—Elements of Economics. (Macmillan, 1912).
- Callendar, G. S.—Selected Readings in Economic History of United States, 1765-1860. (Ginn, 1909).
- Carver, T. N.—Distribution of Wealth. (Macmillan, 1905).
- Chicago University of, Outlines of Economics (second ed.). (U. of C. Press, 1910).
- Clark, J. B.—Essentials of Economic Theory. (Macmillan, 1907).
- Davenport, H. J.—Outlines of Economic Theory. (Macmillan, 1902).
- Ellwood, C. A.—Sociology and Modern Social Problems. (Amer. Book Co., 1910).
- Ely, R. T.—Outlines of Economics. (Macmillan, 1908).
- Fetter, R. A.—Principles of Economics. (Century, 1904).
- Fisher, Irving—Elementary Principles of Economics. (Macmillan, 1911).
- Gide, C.—Principles of Political Economy. (Heath, 1903).
- Haney, L. H.—History of Economics. (Macmillan, 1911).
- Hobson, J. A.—Economics of Distribution. (Macmillan, 1900).
- Johnson, A. S.—Introductory Economics. (Macmillan, 1909).
- Marshall, A.—Elements of Economics of Industry. (Macmillan).
- Patten, S. N.—Theory of Prosperity. (Macmillan, 1902).
- Seager, H. R.—Introduction to Economics (third edition). (Holt, 1905).
- Seligman, E. R. A.—Principles of Economics. (Longmans, 1905).
- Smart, W.—Introduction to Theory of Value (new edition). (Macmillan, 1910).
- Spargo, J.—Socialism (revised edition). (Macmillan, 1909).
- Taussig, F. W.—Principles of Economics (2 vols.). (Macmillan, 1911).

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Periodical Literature.—MARY W. WILLIAMS.

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The Magazine and the Review

Report on the Relation between the *American Historical Review* and the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE to the Council of the American Historical Association, December 27-31, 1912.

The editors of the *Review*, to whom the matter was referred as a committee of the Council, beg leave to adopt as their report a memorandum on the relations between the *American Historical Review* and the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE drawn up by the chairman of the advisory committee of the MAGAZINE, and approved by the members of that committee, to which the editors have made two slight additions which have also been approved by the advisory committee. Your committee would recommend that the council adopt this memorandum as a statement of its opinion as to the principles which should govern the relationship between the *Review* and the MAGAZINE.

The general province of the *Review* is to set forth and to appraise the ideals and achievements of historical schol-

arship. The general province of the MAGAZINE is to set forth and to appraise the ideals and achievements of class room instruction in history. To the teacher of history the one is a matter of interest as "strictly professional" as the other. Teachers of history ought, therefore, to have access both to the *Review* and the MAGAZINE.

The two periodicals already have a considerable number of readers in common. The MAGAZINE should endeavor as a part of its general policy to increase the number.

This condition should be clearly before the editors in selecting material for the MAGAZINE. At the same time the *Review* will reach many readers who never see the MAGAZINE, and the MAGAZINE will reach many readers who never see the *Review*. These two classes will probably always outnumber the readers who keep in touch with both periodicals. It follows that the *Review* may at times with profit enter the province of the MAGAZINE and that the MAGAZINE may at times with profit enter the province of the *Review*.

This freedom will naturally be exercised more frequently by the MAGAZINE than by the *Review* and can be exercised without prejudice to readers who have access to both periodicals.

Some articles published by the *Review* should be summarized by the MAGAZINE. This should be done whenever conclusions are established that affect directly either facts or interpretations of facts now presented in school. What is taught in school should as far as possible be kept in harmony with the development of historical knowledge.

Some books appraised by the *Review* should be appraised also by the MAGAZINE. This should occur especially in the case of books which are sound historically and yet so conceived and so written as to appeal strongly to young readers. The MAGAZINE should regard it as one of the greatest services that it can render to raise the standard of books deemed suitable for school history.

The MAGAZINE should also from time to time publish general reviews embodying the results of investigations in those fields from which school history draws its material. These reviews should, as far as possible, be prepared by acknowledged scholars. There should be similar reviews of the history of history and of discussions of the historical method.

Again, the MAGAZINE should keep watch over newly discovered sources and should be free to publish sources which have special bearing on school history.

While school history only has thus far been mentioned, it is the purpose of the MAGAZINE to serve also the interests of college teachers of history. In any of the fields indicated the MAGAZINE should be free to include whatever may advance the special interests of history teaching in college.

The furtherance of these special aims may at times involve some duplication of material, but the point of view of the MAGAZINE will always be specifically that of the teacher of history either in school or in college.

The *Review* should surrender to the MAGAZINE the work of reviewing text-books and other apparatus intended primarily for use in class room instruction but reserve the right of reviewing advanced text-books from the point of view of their scholarly quality.

Both the *Review* and the MAGAZINE should be free to publish items of personal interest and such accounts of meetings and of general discussions as seem desirable.

It is recommended that the managing editors of the *Review* and the MAGAZINE confer together concerning any doubtful points which may arise in the practical operations of the terms of this memorandum.

Training School for Public Service

For over one year there has been conducted in connection with the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City, a Training School for Public Service. The school was the outcome of a proposal made in February, 1911, by Mrs. E. H. Harriman. In March, 1911, the Bureau of Municipal Research consented to undertake the administration of such a work if a fund were raised. In the fall of 1911, the Bureau was notified that a fund amounting to forty thousand dollars a year for five years had been raised. In October, 1911, the work of the school was begun.

The Training School is a systematic effort, primarily through field experience,

1. To train young men of executive ability for the study and administration of public business.
2. To meet a growing demand for students and administrators able to test the efficiency of present methods of municipal service and to introduce improved methods.
3. To work out and publish handbooks on various departments of public service and methods of testing and increasing the efficiency of public service in all departments.
4. To furnish a municipal literature for the use of graduate students in schools and colleges.
5. To emphasize the need for special training on the part of city officials and employees.

The needs of New York City, in its various departments and the needs of other communities, where the Bureau of Municipal Research has worked, supply the motive, the text-book, and the laboratory for the Training School for Public Service. Field work is supplemented by lectures, conferences, and symposiums, and by the study of the literature of public business, particularly current documents; but the fundamental idea has been that the most effective training is gained by doing services that some community needs to have done. Training School students have worked side by side with public officers and public employees.

Among the particular kinds of work used for field training are: every step in budget making; preparation of uniform reports in collaboration with the mayor's secretary; installation of efficiency bureaus; study and reports upon important proposals for the Board of Estimate and Board of Aldermen; study of individual schools and school systems; surveys of city health organization and management in several nearby cities; written criticisms of published official reports for review in newspapers; standardization of supplies and of salaries; study of contracts for construction; planning the layout of departmental quarters in the new municipal building, etc.

During its first year, members of the Training School for Public Service, under the supervision of directors and staff members of the Bureau of Municipal Research, have engaged in the following activities:

1. Analysis of classified estimates for New York budgets for 1912 and 1913 and the Philadelphia budget for 1912.
2. Preparation of an administrative code.
3. Examination of police department records under the direction of the aldermanic police inquiry.
4. A publicity follow-up campaign after the St. Louis meeting of school superintendents.
5. A publicity campaign in favor of adequate support for the president's commission of efficiency and economy.
6. An inquiry into why New York City's taxes increase.
7. A survey of New York City's watering troughs for horses, methods of currently inspecting, etc.
8. Installation of water revenue control system.
9. Laying out floor space in the new municipal building for one of the large departments.

10. Study of conditions and needs of rural, high and normal schools for the Wisconsin State Board of Public Affairs, and of Syracuse and Atlanta schools for local committees.
11. Health administration surveys for Syracuse, Newark, Atlanta, and the four Oranges (N. J.).
12. Analysis of New York school inquiry reports in galley proofs for the Board of Estimate Committee on School Inquiry.
13. Standardization of supplies for Board of Estimate Committee.
14. First steps in standardization of salaries for Comptroller Prendergast.
15. Standardization of quarterly and annual departmental reports to the Mayor, under the final direction of the Mayor's secretary.
16. An analysis of the records extending over a period of eight years of one of New York's elementary schools, first with special reference to the rate of progress of children through the grades,—but later upon request, including sanitation, class-room methods, correspondence, instructions to teachers, relations to outside agencies.

In addition to these major activities, each man has been or will be assigned:

1. To handle, as far as may be possible, the office correspondence of one of the directors.
2. To take charge of the bureau account books for one month.
3. To prepare Efficient Citizenship bulletins.
4. To carry on the work of the filing room.
5. To review and criticize published reports of administrative officers, to be submitted to the authors if obviously helpful.
6. To prepare press and magazine articles on various phases of administration.
7. To visit civic organizations on questions of civic importance.

The greater number of successful students in the school have been young men who have succeeded in their own fields, law, medicine, accounting, engineering, school supervision, etc., and men in business. To enable such men to devote themselves to preparing for public service, stipends varying with the minimum necessities of the men are provided by the founders. These stipends are not salaries, and are not regarded as compensation for services rendered, but as a "bridge" from present work to a career of public service.

Applications and inquiries to the number of 485 have been received by the Training School from 106 cities in 25 different States. Forty-four different workers have been admitted for training, 20 without stipend and 24 on stipends. Eleven of those who have been in the school have taken posts of importance in Philadelphia, Dayton, O., Milwaukee, Wis., Boston, Westchester County, N. Y., Orange, N. J., and New York City.

The directors of the Bureau of Municipal Research are Dr. W. H. Allen, Henry Bruère, and Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland.

Mr. Raymond G. Taylor, of the Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kan., has issued "A Syllabus of Kansas History," which contains an outline of the History of Kansas from 1540 to 1913, divided into topics and with references to text-books and extended histories upon each period. In addition to the political topics, there are topics and references upon churches and schools, and men, women and letters in Kansas. It is the author's hope that the syllabus will not only assist in the study of Kansas history in the common school courses, but that the references will make it possible to extend the study of State history into the high school, or even into college work.

History in the Secondary School

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, EDITOR.

Outline of European History

Based on the Recommendations of the Committee of Five

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., AND ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D.

IV. The French Revolution

The Important Aspects of the Revolution.

In presenting the opening chapters of the French Revolution, it is natural to adhere more or less closely to the order in which the events occurred. This is a comparatively easy task until the outbreak of the foreign war is reached. From this point on difficulties begin to thicken for the teacher, as it is necessary to follow two threads instead of one, or rather two strands of the same thread—strands so closely intertwined as often to defy separation. In the present attempt to organize anew the material of this period, an effort has been made to keep to the fore the thought of the work of the Revolution, to emphasize the transformation which French society experienced, and to give prominence to that wider aspect of the movement which made it second only in importance to the Reformation in its influence on world culture.

The Revolution was essentially an assertion on the part of the people of their right "to be governed by a few simple laws, obvious and uniform," an effort to throw off certain burdens under which they had long been struggling and at the same time to safeguard themselves against a recurrence of these conditions. Their demand for social and economic freedom carried with it naturally political changes. Although the goal was never clearly defined and the movement at the outset was confined largely to the middle classes, almost with every passing day it became more democratic in character. That Rousseau's ideal state was not ultimately realized, or some form of modern democracy is explained in part by the interference of foreign foes and by the appearance of Napoleon.

The Causes of the Revolution.

The Revolution had its origin in those new ideas which were characteristic of the middle of the century—ideas which were utterly at variance with the world as it was then constituted and which marked the dawn of modern life. French philosophers pointed the way and the ground in France was singularly fertile for the germination of the seed. As the first attacks fell upon the social order and the Revolution brought with it a great social upheaval, the social inequalities have been presented first, followed by the economic and political grievances. All of these, however, were so closely bound together as to make a mutually exclusive classification absolutely impossible. The intellect of France supplied the ideas which crystallized the smoldering discontent into action and gave it direction. Once started, the middle classes with whom it originated, found it impossible to keep the movement within their control and its benefits accrued alike to burgher and peasant.

The Governmental Changes.

Particular stress in the present arrangement has been laid upon the governmental changes. The first epoch-making change was the calling of the States General and in this connection many important questions were raised for solution which had a very direct bearing on the development of representative government. When the States

General constituted itself the assembly of the nation and then set itself to the task of giving France a constitution, the end of the old order speedily followed. Before its work was scarcely begun, however, the influence of the Parisian mob had made itself felt and from this time forward it continued to remain an important factor in shaping the course of the constitutional development. The importance of the work accomplished by this assembly has been emphasized by grouping its achievements under the three headings—social, economic and political.

The declaration of war which came largely as the result of such internal conditions as the opposition of the king, the intrigues of the court and the party divisions was followed by further changes in the newly constituted government, that is, in its outward form. Even though the final abolition of royalty was not as important as its intensely dramatic accompaniments would seem to indicate, it made necessary the declaration of the republic and the calling of the Convention. France had outwardly, at least, gone over the path which led from absolutism to democracy, and even though the circumstances of '93 soon brought into existence the tyranny of the few, the republican idea had already taken firm root. The important work of the Convention no less than that of the Great Committee, should not be overlooked. This phase of the Revolution came to an end with the Directory which marked the restoration of constitutional government after the turmoil and disorder which characterized the overthrow of Robespierre. Acts had been perpetrated in this period which opened with the creation of the Great Committee and ended with the fall of Robespierre which had little sanction in law or precedent. The stress and strain of these years made the people acquiesce in any measure which seemed to be directed toward the public good. With 1795 a constitution was again established to serve as the groundwork of the administration. This constitution, or the government which was erected in conformity with its provisions, gave the young Napoleon Bonaparte his opportunity and this period of the Directory will be considered as a part of the Napoleonic era because it marked his rise to power.

The Work of the Revolution.

Before introducing Napoleon, the real work accomplished by the Revolution will be clearer if the France of 1795 and French society in its regenerated condition are presented in contrast with the picture with which the revolutionary period opens. Much had already been accomplished in securing civil and political equality. Finally, the fact should not be overlooked that French ideas were already making headway in Europe—in fact that the ground had already been prepared for their lodgment—and that a definite propaganda had been carried on, especially among the peoples who were in close proximity to the frontier. By 1795 France had also realized her ideal of the boundaries of ancient Gaul, but in effecting this change had incurred the hostility of the great states of Northern and Central Europe and unchained the dogs of war who were destined to rage for many a year to come.

The French Revolution.

- I. Conditions favorable to Revolution—The Old Order in France and its defects.
 1. Social
 - a. Class privileges
 - b. Feudal survivals
 2. Economic
 - a. Trade restrictions
 - b. Feudal burdens
 - c. System of taxation
 - d. Waste and extravagance of the rulers
 3. Political
 - a. Organization of the government
 - b. Absolutism of the king
 - c. Failures of Louis XV
 4. Intellectual—The writings and teachings of the philosophers and economists
- II. Louis XVI and the Calling of the States General.
 1. Financial difficulties of the reign
 2. The efforts at reform
 - a. Turgot's plans and the opposition of the Court
 - b. Necker and his Balance Sheet
 - c. Calonne and the creation of credit
 3. Influence of the American Revolution
 4. Necker and the Summoning of the States General
 - a. Preliminary steps—Assembly of Notables, 1786
 - b. Difficulties involved
 - (1) Method of election
 - (2) Apportionment of representatives
 - (3) The *Cahiers*.
- III. The end of the Old Order.
 1. Organization of the Estates General as the National-Constituent Assembly
 - a. Question of voting
 - b. Opposition of the Court and the Tennis Court Oath
 - c. The influence of Paris
 - (1) Fall of the Bastille and formation of the National Guard
 - (2) Effects on the provinces
 - (3) Removal of the King and Queen to Paris
 - d. Influence of Mirabeau
 2. Work of the National-Constituent Assembly
 - a. Social and economic
 - (1) Abolition of Privilege and Declaration of the Rights of Men
 - (2) Ecclesiastical reorganization
 - (3) Financial measures—the Assignats
 - b. Political—The Constitution of 1791
 - (1) The Suffrage
 - (2) The composition and powers of the Legislative Assembly
 - (3) Restrictions on the power of the king
- IV. The French Republic and the Beginning of the Struggle with Europe.
 1. Causes of the outbreak of war
 - a. The attitude of the Girondins
 - b. Intrigues of the emigrés
 - c. Opposition of the king—Flight to Varennes, June 21, 1791
 - d. Intervention of Austria and Prussia—Declaration of Pillnitz
 2. Abolition of Royalty and its consequences
 - a. Preliminaries
 - (1) Declaration of Brunswick
 - (2) Attack on the Tuilleries on the 10th of August
 - (3) Longwy and Verdun and the September Massacres, 1792
 - b. The Convention and the Declaration of the Republic
 - c. The Trial and Execution of the King
 - d. The hostility of England, Holland and Spain
 3. The Committee of Public Safety and its work
 - a. Origin—The Situation in 1793
 - (1) Treason of Dumouriez
 - (2) Strife between the Girondins and the Mountain
 - (3) War in the Vendée
 - b. Its Organization and methods
 - c. Its accomplishments
 - (1) The fall of the Girondins
 - (2) The Reign of Terror, June 2, 1793—July 27, 1794.
 - (3) French military successes—Carnot
 4. The reforms of the Convention
 - a. Reorganization of the army
 - b. Educational changes
 - c. The Revolutionary Calendar
 5. The restoration of constitutional government
 - a. The dictatorship of Robespierre and his overthrow
 - b. The formation of the Directory—Constitution of the Year III
 - c. The Treaties of Basle and the Hague 1795
- V. Effects of the Revolution on France.
 1. Growth of civil equality
 2. Growth of political equality—changes in the suffrage
 3. Administrative changes—the departments and municipalities
 4. Judicial, financial, and ecclesiastical reforms
- VI. Effects of the Revolution on Europe.
 1. The Revolutionary Propaganda and its reception
 2. Occupation of frontiers of Ancient Gaul

References.

The character and causes of the French Revolution were discussed from the standpoint of their presentation in the secondary school in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for March, 1910. In this connection several useful secondary works were mentioned. There are a number of excellent short histories of the Revolution. Belloc in his "French Revolution" stresses somewhat the governmental or constitutional side. He also gives a series of biographical summaries of the chief actors and treats the ecclesiastical aspect of the movement in some detail. Johnston, "The French Revolution: a Short History" devotes an entire chapter to the economic causes of the Revolution. Mathews, "French Revolution: a Sketch," is strong on the social changes. Besides these, there is the older work of Morris in the Epochs series, which is still useful. Rose, "The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Epoch" and Stephens, "Revolutionary Europe, 1789-1815," also present, as their titles indicate, the Napoleonic era. Rose is probably the better book for the secondary teacher as it is less detailed. Aulard's standard work on the Revolution has recently been translated (in 4 volumes, Chas. Scribners' Sons). This carries the narrative through the Directory and Consulate. This great French scholar recognizes various stages in the development of the French republic in this period. The work of the Revolution and its relation to Europe are summarized briefly in Seignobos, Contemporary Civilization, Chapters V-VI. For a more detailed treatment of the entire period there are the larger works of Stephens and of Sybel and Volume VIII in the Cambridge Modern History. Carlyle's French Revolution has little value for the secondary teacher.

The History Teacher and the Peace Movement

CLAUDE S. LARZELERE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MT. PLEASANT, MICHIGAN.

A demand is made frequently upon the school teacher to help some worthy cause. The reformer seems to think that if the children can be instructed to suit him the future of the desired reform will be assured.

The reader will readily recall, doubtless, attempts of this kind. Several years ago, for example, persons working the interests of temperance secured the passage of laws in many states of the Union, requiring that the evil effects of alcoholic beverages upon the human body be taught in the different grades of the public schools. More recently, in order to further the back-to-the-land movement and reduce the high cost of living, the teaching of agriculture has been pushed into the schools.

At the present time a demand is being made upon the teacher of history by those interested in the abolition of war, that he teach history so as to further the cause of peace.

Now, it is not the business of the history teacher to teach his subject so as to further any particular cause, however worthy. He should not be a propagandist. He should teach the truth as he finds it, regardless of its effects upon any particular movement or cause.

But possibly the history teacher may be true to his calling and still help the peace propaganda, in spite of some difficulties in the way. Let us see.

Children are greatly interested in stories of heroes, deeds of adventure, and tales of fighting and warfare. This is the phase of history that first appeals to boys and girls, and this fact should be taken advantage of by the teacher in the grades. Stories of conflict and warfare, then, ought not to be omitted from the early work in history, but the teacher may wisely see to it that there be mixed with such material, plenty of stories of adventure and heroism that do not have to do with battles, bloodshed and slaughter. The teacher may so select the material and place the emphasis as not to give undue prominence and glory to the warrior and military hero, while at the same time keeping the boys and girls interested and giving them a proper introduction to the study of history.

To older children, especially to high school pupils, the evolution of our present civilization and institutions should be taught through the study of history.¹ They may be shown that the first social, economic, and political group was doubtless the primitive family; that every family was the enemy of every other family; and that a chronic state of warfare existed among the family groups; that only those families could survive which were able to defend themselves and their sources of food supply by strength and cunning against their numerous enemies.

In certain cases where the food supply was sufficiently abundant, and the conditions were favorable, the members of a family remained together for a longer time, i. e., the sons and grandsons with their wives and children stayed with the parents instead of breaking up into separate families. Such a family group possessed many advantages over a smaller family. Its numbers could cooperate in the chase; it could gain and keep possession of a more favorable habitat; it could defend itself more suc-

cessfully against its enemies. In these ways it survived and gained in strength. It also grew more numerous and powerful by conquering other weaker groups and incorporating some of their members. Probably in some such way as these clans were formed.

In a similar way larger units, called tribes, in time grew up. Most of the Indians had reached this stage of advancement when Europeans came to America. Generally there was peace between the members of a tribe, but all outside the tribe were enemies to be killed on sight. Almost constant warfare was carried on between the different tribes.

In course of time and when the geographic environment was propitious tribes grew or were confederated into nations, often by means of much fighting. The change from a nomadic state to a settled agricultural life was favorable to the formation of a nation. The Hebrews did not become a real nation until they had settled in Palestine. The Iroquois Indians were in process of becoming a nation when the white man interrupted the process. History furnishes many examples of the formation of nations. As every primitive family was at enmity with every other family; as the members of every clan were the sworn enemies of the members of every other clan; as a chronic state of war existed among tribes; so for long centuries have nations regarded each other as potential if not actual enemies. The Jews regarded anyone not descended from Jacob, as not worthy the favor and protection of their god Jehovah. The Greeks called everyone not of Hellenic blood a barbarian. Even to-day most people regard a foreigner with more or less aversion and consider him as made of inferior stuff.

Of course, much of the preceding does not properly belong to the field of history, but rather to the fields of anthropology and sociology. However, the lines need not be drawn too sharply in the high school.

After the boys and girls have been taught something of the evolution of political societies, their attention may be directed to the growth of internationalism. They may be brought to see how the nations and peoples of the civilized world have been brought closer together in recent times by improved means of travel and communication, by an increased commercial intercourse, by the many international societies, conventions, and meetings, and by many other agencies. The fact should be emphasized that modern nations are becoming less and less independent of each other, but more and more interdependent. The attention of pupils should be directed to the fact that several steps have already been taken toward the federation of the world, and that a part of the necessary machinery for that purpose, such as the Hague Court, already has been created.

As peace has existed generally within the family, the clan, the tribe, and the nation, and war has been carried on, usually, only between two or more such units, so when the civilized nations of the world become united into an efficient union, will wars become of much less frequency.

That the evolutionary process is exceedingly slow, may be shown in the history class, as well as in the biological laboratory. The study of history should teach patience. The boys and girls should be brought to realize that they must not expect to see the complete federation of the world at once, and that wars may be expected for some

¹ An opposite view from the author's regarding this early evolution may be found in Edward Jenks' "A History of Politics" (Temple classics). This would modify, somewhat, the terms of the argument, but would not seriously impair its validity.—EDITOR.

time to come. The evolutionary process, however, may be hastened by man's action. Artificial selection secures results much more quickly than natural selection; as, for example, in the development of our domesticated fruits and animals. It is to be observed, also, that the evolutionary process is a process of friction, competition, and suffering. The change from nationalism to internationalism cannot be expected to take place without disturbances in the form of wars.

The teacher of history may profitably show his class how other movements, such as the anti-slavery movement, had to pass through the stages of anticipation, agitation, education, organization, struggle, and fulfillment.

The history of wars, then, need not be omitted by the teacher of history, and the part played by war in the development of our political units and our institutions should be taught. But the idea should be brought out that while war may have been of benefit at times in the earlier stages of civilization we have now reached a stage where it not only is not needed for further advancement, but has become a positive hindrance to advancement, a drag upon the wheels of progress, and a great evil. The idea may be illustrated by such things as individual fighting, slavery, and polygamy, which may have been good things in certain stages of civilization, but which became positive evils in later stages of advancement.

The text-book writers are already giving the boys and girls better balanced material for the study of history, and the better history teachers are placing the emphasis upon the more important subjects. Social, economic, and political topics are being given more attention than formerly, while wars and military matters are receiving relatively less attention. The pendulum should not be allowed to swing too far, however. The influence of wars upon the current of history and upon national development must not be entirely neglected.

The teaching of a broader patriotism should help along the peace movement. Teaching love of country by disparaging and belittling other countries is unworthy of a teacher of history.

The study of history in itself ought to further the growing spirit of internationalism. The proper study of the history of countries other than the pupil's own, gives him a knowledge of the great achievements of other peoples, develops a respect for other nations, and gives that breadth of view and widening of the horizon so necessary for a true cosmopolitanism. Too many children in our schools study only the history of their own country, and that, too often, is taught from a narrow and prejudiced view-point.

And, lastly, the cause of peace will be furthered by better history teachers, teachers of natural ability, with a thorough preparation, and capable of a broad view; teachers who can make their pupils realize the great onward march of civilization in the past, and capable of inspiring them with a vision of much greater things to come.

The American Political Science Review for November contains a paper by William Spence Robertson, of the University of Illinois, entitled "The Monroe Doctrine Abroad in 1823-24." The writer considers the reception accorded President Monroe's message to congress of December 2, 1823, in England, France, Spain and Austria, and draws his conclusions to a considerable extent from unpublished manuscripts existing in the Public Record Office, and in the Department of State at Washington.

Certain Old Friends

BY FLORENCE E. STRYKER, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MONTCLAIR, N. J.

EDITOR, HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

In a recent article in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, by Prof. Edgar Dawson of the Normal College of New York, the persistency of certain errors and time-worn myths in the minds of students taking college entrance examinations is mentioned. The illustrations offered by Prof. Dawson are familiar to many teachers whose work brings them in contact with the high school graduates of to-day.

One is surprised to find that in the mental storehouses of many such pupils lie hidden quaint and curious ideas, distorted historical truths, popular fallacies and false beliefs which modern historical criticism has long since banished to the realms of the historical novelist, the newspaper writer and the maker of almanacs.

Examples of these hoary-headed imposters may be gathered from the daily class room work of any college or normal school.

To suggest a few of these old friends: The Church of England was founded by Henry VIII because the Pope would not allow him to marry Anne Boleyn, meets one constantly. Another interesting item is that the Puritans were so much purer and better than the members of the Church of England that they were persecuted for religion.

Only the children of the rich planters were ever educated in Virginia or in the other southern colonies, and these children were sent to England or had tutors at home, for there were no schools of any kind in the South, is a statement sincerely believed, historians to the contrary notwithstanding.

The king of England caused the Revolution because he taxed the Americans so heavily. The king in the student's mind laid the tax and acted in a most outrageous fashion in general. Such a body as the English Parliament or the English theory of representation appear to have made no mental impression upon him.

A royal colony was always tyrannically governed and was much worse than a charter or proprietary government, the word royal evidently striking the democratic mind as fundamentally wrong.

The Americans were victorious in the war of 1812 and taught the British a lesson they have never forgotten. The United States became a first class power after the battle between the Constitution and the Guerriere is an idea so firmly imbedded in the youthful brain that it is not to be dislodged by any higher criticism.

Even the cherry tree is fresh and green. In an exercise composed by normal students for the celebration of Washington's Birthday in the primary grades, over one-third of the papers presented introduced the cherry tree story as the most telling feature in the program.

Poetic justice is also ever present as to the ultimate end of certain notable personages. Benedict Arnold and Aaron Burr always spend their last days in deepest poverty and remorse, while Columbus still persists in dying in prison and in chains. Jefferson is a peculiarly fortunate character for the average pupil insists that he originated democracy and solemnly states that we owe our government by the people to the sage of Monticello. He also wrote the Constitution. This rather irritating falsehood is strangely common and may arise from a mental confusion as to the two historic documents, although to the ordinary conception they are hardly interchangeable in character.

These few hackneyed illustrations are all freshly culled from recent experience, and while not typical of any special class or even generally prevalent, still the very fact of their survival in the minds of high school graduates is interesting and perplexing. The question naturally arises, whether it is the text-book or the teacher which has given the false impression.

The older text-books were, as we know, inaccurate and biased, but each year brings to the market better books, books written by scholars, carefully edited and presenting the modern point of view. Indeed no more encouraging and helpful tendency is visible in the educational world to-day than the efforts of superintendents and boards of education to examine the books used in the schools and to provide better and more accurate texts for their students.

As to the teachers. It is true that the great majority of high school teachers are trained and equipped for the business and do the work well. On the other hand, there is always the teacher of history who has never studied history. These are found in small town or country high schools and in great numbers in the upper grammar grades. Usually required to teach two or three other subjects, or perhaps more, they are lost in the mazes of mathematics, manual training, music, English, etc., and history is literally "a side show." Without knowledge of historical material, with few reference books to consult, with no time for research work, the wonder is such teachers do as well as they do with the meagre equipment they possess. They naturally depend on the text-book, and if that be poor, the pupil fares badly indeed.

To help such teachers is truly a worth while business, for after all these are the teachers who educate the great majority of our American People. A few suggestions that might be offered would be along these lines:

The use in the upper grades of the departmental system allowing the history work to be developed by one teacher who would have more opportunity for specialization and study.

The introduction into grammar schools and the small high school of reference history libraries and history magazines and books on methods of teaching history. The bringing of such teachers to history meetings and assemblies where modern historical ideas are discussed. These meetings now are almost entirely attended by college and high school educators who are specialists, and do not affect the rank and file of the profession who teach history as they received it from their fathers, untouched by any modern innovations. If boards of education would demand and pay for better trained teachers, many problems would be solved. For that end let us pray. But in any case, let us notice the cheering signs of the time. They indicate that history is becoming a more vital and popular subject in the educational world, that it fills larger space in school curriculums, that it is better taught each year. Therefore let us hope that in time even these "old friends" whose appearance has so long troubled us will die to rise no more.

The fact that the Civil War in England "was a struggle not alone between Crown and Parliament, between Anglican and Dissenter, but between class and mass" is given by Wilbur C. Abbott as the reason why Cromwell and other leaders of the period still evoke among the English emotions as intense as the feeling towards living political leaders. ("The Fame of Cromwell," *Yale Review*, January).

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

The "Truth and Fiction in the Morocco Question" is considered by W. von Massow in *Die Grenzboten*, for December 11, 1912.

The struggles on the part of the Irish for autonomy are described by Augustin Filon under the title "History of a Constitution: Irish Home Rule" (*Revue des Deux Mondes*, January).

"The Chinese millions have given the world the greatest revolution of modern times in the most civilized manner known to history." This is the view taken by Ching Chun Wang in "A Plea for the Recognition of the Chinese Republic" which appears in the *Atlantic* for January.

In *Revue Historique* for November-December Jean Marx presents "A New Account of the Death of William the Conqueror." The text of the document is in Latin and was found at the end of the *Historia Normannorum* of Guillaume de Jumièges. This account varies in some details from the usually accepted authorities.

Reminiscences of Captain Lewis C. Shilling, who joined Fremont, Kit Carson and others in their efforts to add the West to the Union, are given by John W. Connors in *Overland Monthly* for January, under the title "Path-finding with Fremont."

The remarkable social development of Denmark, resulting from the ability and willingness of her population to organize and co-operate for the general good, is set forth in *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* for November. The author of the paper on "Social Denmark" is P. Schou, of the Danish Legation at Washington.

"The Early Salt Trade of the Ohio Valley" by Isaac Lippincott (*Journal of Political Economy*, December) has much of value for the student of American history. The importance of this traffic is hinted at by the interesting statement that "On April 15, 1794, 'good old Kentucky salt' was advertised for sale in Cincinnati, then a village in the sixth year of its existence."

Apropos of the recent efforts of Ezra Meeker to bring about the erection of suitable markers on the old road to Oregon, John L. Cowan, in an article on "The Oregon Trail" (*Sunset*, February) briefly outlines pioneering movements in the West from the days of the Verendryes to the building of the Union Pacific and the Oregon Short Line—all more or less along the route of the historic Oregon Trail. The article is illustrated with a map and pictures.

The first of a series of articles by Woodrow Wilson on "The New Freedom: a call for the Emancipation of the Generous Energies of a People" appears in *World's Work* for January. A strong note of optimism runs through the article: "I do not fear revolution: I have unshaken faith in the power of America to keep its self-possession. Revolution will come in peaceful guise, as it came when we put aside the crude government of the Confederation, and created the great Federal Union which governed individuals, not states, and which has been these 130 years our vehicle of progress. Some radical changes we must make in our law and practice. Some reconstructions we must push forward, which a new age and new circumstances impose upon us. But we can do it all in calm and sober fashion, like statesmen and patriots."

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES.

Mr. Archer B. Hulbert has been appointed archivist to the Commission on Western History, from January 1 to September 30, 1913.

Professor Charles H. Haskins, of Harvard University, has been assigned the Woodbury Lowery Fellowship for Research in Foreign Archives for the year 1913-14.

The next meeting of the Indiana Association will be held about April 1.

The next meeting of the History Teachers' Association of Nebraska will be held in May. The History Section of the Nebraska State Teachers' Association voted about a year ago to separate from the main organization, thus forming one more distinctively history teachers' association.

Dr. Arthur N. Holcombe, of Harvard University, has been granted leave of absence on account of ill health.

The following chairmen of committees have been appointed in the New England Association: Methods, Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, of Springfield; Text-books, Professor S. B. Fay, Dartmouth College; Economics, Mr. Winthrop Tirrell, High School of Commerce, Boston; Industrial and Commercial History (course of study), Professor S. M. Kingsbury, Simmons College; College Entrance Requirements, Professor H. D. Foster, Dartmouth College; the Historical Pictures, Dr. Ellen Scott Davison, Bradford Academy; Historical Material, Dr. H. M. Varrell, Simmons College.

Three faculty representatives of the University of La Plata, Argentina, have been touring the United States investigating educational methods. They are concerned chiefly with the teaching of history and biology, and with rural school problems.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Executive Committee of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland is making arrangements to hold a meeting of the association on April 18, 19, at Syracuse, N. Y. Details of the program will be given in the April number of THE MAGAZINE.

TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION.

The first annual meeting of the Tennessee History Teachers' Association, which was organized in 1912, was held in the rooms of the Tennessee Historical Society in Nashville on the afternoon of January 16th. A good attendance was present. There was a general round-table discussion on the teaching of History. This was opened by the president of the association, Professor James D. Hoskins, of the University of Tennessee. Other speakers were Miss Dortch, of the Nashville High School, Mr. Max Souby, of the Middle Tennessee State Normal School at Murfreesboro; Mr. I. R. Hudson, of the Nashville High School; Principal James A. Robins, of the McTyeire School at McKenzie; Miss Lizzie Lee Bloomstein, now librarian, formerly Professor of History in the George Peabody College for Teachers; Assistant Superintendent W. S. Jones, of the Memphis Public Schools; Superintendent J. R. Lowry, of the Park City School, Knoxville; Miss Annie C. Allison, of the Girls' Preparatory School, Nashville; Mrs. Mitchell, of the Columbia High School, and Professor J. W. Sewell, supervisor of the Grammar Grades of Nashville.

The constitution was so amended as to make possible the establishment of local circles in the larger towns for the purpose of more frequent meetings. A resolution was passed in support of the application made by the Tennessee Historical Society for quarters in the Capitol Annex, if such is built by authority of the Legislature, now in session.

The entire list of officers was re-elected to serve another year. These are: James D. Hoskins, of the University of Tennessee, president; A. M. Souby, of the Middle Tennessee State Normal School, and James A. Robins, of the McTyeire School, vice-presidents; St. George L. Sioussat, of Vanderbilt University, secretary and treasurer, and Miss Lizzie Lee Bloomstein, of the George Peabody College for Teachers; Phoebus W. Lyon, of Maryville College, and Dr. Lillian W. Johnson, of Memphis, who, with the officers, constitute the Executive Committee.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The official address of the treasurer of the Association has been changed from New York to 1140 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.

The prize essay for 1911, "The Political Activities of Baptists and Fifth Monarchy Men in England during the Interregnum," by Miss Louise F. Brown, has just been published.

The annual report for 1911 is in press, and will be distributed as soon as possible in the present year.

The Association has decided to reprint, as one of the new series of prize essays, the first essay to receive the Adams prize, "The Spiritual Franciscans," by David S. Muzzey.

A price list of the publications of the Association is being prepared, and copies will be sent upon application to the secretary.

The committees of the American Historical Association upon the Justin Winsor Prize and the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize, have made some changes in the conditions for the awarding of these prizes. The changes deal largely with the form in which the manuscripts submitted for the prize should be presented and with the preparation of the manuscript for the printer and the number of copies to which the winner of the prize is entitled. The committee on the Justin Winsor Prize is composed of Claude H. Van Tyne (chairman), University of Michigan; Carl Becker, University of Kansas; William MacDonald, Brown University; J. G. de R. Hamilton, University of North Carolina; Carl R. Fish, University of Wisconsin. The committee on the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize is composed of George Lincoln Burr (chairman), Cornell University; Edwin F. Gay, Harvard University; Charles D. Hazen, Smith College; A. B. White, University of Minnesota; Lawrence M. Larson, University of Illinois.

INTERNATIONAL HISTORICAL CONGRESS.

The International Congress of Historical Studies will meet in London from April 3 to April 9, 1913. The last meeting was held in Berlin in 1908. The meeting in London is under the auspices of the British Academy in co-operation with the universities, societies, and other institutions interested in historical science. The preliminary

scheme for the sections of the Congress is as follows:—

- I. Oriental History, including Egyptology.
- II. Greek and Roman History, and Byzantine History.
- III. Mediaeval History.
- IV. Modern History, and History of Colonies and Dependencies, including Naval and Military History.
- V. Religious and Ecclesiastical History.
- VI. Legal and Economic History:—
 - (a) Legal History;
 - (b) Economic History.
- VII. History of Mediaeval and Modern Civilization:—
 - (a) Philosophy, Language and Literature;
 - (b) Mediaeval and Modern History, including Architecture and Music;
 - (c) Exact Sciences, Natural History and Medicine;
 - (d) Social Sciences and Education.
- VIII. Archaeology, with Prehistoric Studies and Ancient Art.
- IX. Related and Auxiliary Sciences:—
 - (a) Ethnology, Historical Geography, Topography and Local History;
 - (b) Philosophy of History, Historical Methodology, and the Teaching of History;
 - (c) Palaeography and Diplomatics, Bibliography, Numismatics, Genealogy, Heraldry and Spmagistics.

The proceedings of the congress will consist of general meetings and of sectional meetings. Each section will have its own president, vice-president, and secretary, and will be responsible for the transaction of its own business. Every member of the congress subscribes the sum of one pound. Ladies are eligible to full membership in the congress. Proposals in respect to papers should be addressed to the secretary for papers, the Rev. Professor J. P. Whitney, 9 Well Walk, Hampstead Heath, London. All other communications should be addressed to the secretary of the congress, Professor I. Gollancz, the British Academy, Burlington House, London, W.

MARYLAND ASSOCIATION.

The History Teachers' Association of Maryland met on Saturday, February 15, in the State Normal School of Baltimore. The program was an interesting one and included "The Recent Revolution in Portugal," by Professor John M. Vincent, of Johns Hopkins University; "The Results of The Hague Conferences from a Historical Point of View," by John H. Russell, of Johns Hopkins University; "Some Recent Historical Publications," by Dr. Ralph V.D. Magoffin, of Johns Hopkins University. After the conclusion of the program, a subscription lunch was served.

The Committee of the Maryland History Teachers' Association has published a report upon the "Teaching of History in the Public Schools." The report contains advice concerning bibliography, atlases, and historical material for elementary schools; it gives brief annotated lists of works upon American History, both political, economic, and industrial; it has lists of documents and source material, references upon biography and books for children, and typical reference libraries to cost not less than six dollars nor more than nineteen dollars. The report closes with a letter to the superintendents of schools in the Maryland counties, in which the committee urges the equipment of rural schools with good histories, one or more maps and some historical pictures, with circulating libraries to be established at convenient centers; and advises that history be given a prominent place in the programs of teachers' institutes, particularly that competent instructors offer courses dealing with the subject matter of history, the committee being of the opinion that there has not been enough attention paid to

the subject matter of history while much time has been devoted to the methods of teaching it. The committee was made up of Percy Louis Kaye, Ella V. Ricker, J. M. Gambrill, Lida Lee Tall, E. Giorgien Ewing and the report was printed in the "Maryland Teachers' Year Book for 1912."

TRENTON CONFERENCE.

The Trenton Local Conference of History Teachers will hold its annual meeting on Saturday, March 1, at 2 o'clock. The chief speakers are Dr. Paul Van Dyck, of Princeton University, Mr. S. B. Howe, Jr., of Plainfield, N. J., and Mr. J. Archibald Corlies, of Cranford, N. J.

CALIFORNIA ASSOCIATION.

The annual winter session of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association was held in connection with the association, Bay Section, in San Francisco, on January 3. President Cooper presided.

The program was opened by the secretary, Miss Maude Stevens, of Palo Alto, who reported the results of an investigation of the history courses given in the larger high schools of the State. It would seem, from the results, that most of the schools are satisfied, or fairly well satisfied, with the course as outlined by the Committee of Seven. In some of the larger schools the course has been varied somewhat, but few radical changes have been made.

The second topic on the program was "General History in the High School." The subject was ably presented by Miss Anna Fraser of the Oakland High School. Miss Fraser argued for the course in General History as a supplementary course, rather than as one to supersede any one of the history subjects now given. She said that the course was needed for those students who take only one year of history, as students who are planning an engineering or commercial career, for the belated students, etc. She argued that the course can be given successfully if a definite choice of the larger questions is made by the teacher and a wise elimination of details is made. Such a choice results in a clear, simple and definite course. Miss Fraser felt that the question is not, "Shall we have the course?" but rather, "Where shall we have it?"

The third topic for discussion was "The Berkeley Plan." The president, Mr. Cooper, presented and explained the plan at some length. A brief outline follows:—

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

Seventh year—General European History.

Eighth year—United States History.

Ninth year—Pacific Coast and Local History and Government.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

Tenth Year—First semester, Ancient History to 800 A.D. Second semester, Mediaeval History to 1500.

Eleventh year—First semester, Early Modern History to 1815. Second semester, Nineteenth Century.

Twelfth year—First semester, United States History. Second semester, Civics.

In his discussion, Mr. Cooper gave an outline of the work done in each year and his reasons for the arrangement of the course. His most detailed discussion was of the course in Pacific Coast and Local History and Government. In dividing the work of the tenth year, Mr. Cooper allows one-third to Greece and the East and two-thirds to Rome.

At the close of the program, the annual business meeting was held. The following officers were elected:—

President, Miss Maude Stevens, Palo Alto High School.

Vice-President and Secretary, Mr. Earl Barnhart, San Rafael High School.

Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION,
WAYLAND J. CHASE, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

OLD SOUTH LEAFLETS. Edited and published by the Directors of the Old South Work. Boston. Five cents each.

No. 203. **The Proceedings of the Hartford Convention, 1814.** Pp. 26.

The twenty-six delegates to this Convention, consisting of twelve from Massachusetts, seven from Connecticut, four from Rhode Island, two from Grafton County, and Cheshire County in New Hampshire, and one from Windham County in Vermont, drew up and subscribed to a report of their actions which they submitted to the legislatures and county conventions that had sent them. It is this report which is printed in the Leaflet, together with an extract from Theodore Dwight's "History of the Hartford Convention" published in 1833.

No. 204. **Perry's Account of the Battle of Lake Erie, 1813.** Pp. 12.

Here are grouped together extracts from letters of Captain Perry to Commodore Chauncey and General Harrison before the battle; his dispatches and official report to General Harrison and Secretary Jones, of the Navy Department after the battle; letters of Harrison and Perry relative to the co-operation of Perry's squadron with the Army of the Northwest, an extract from the log-book of the Lawrence, Perry's flag-ship, reporting the battle; and the British official account, consisting of the reports of Captain Barclay and Lieutenant Ingles.

No. 205. **Privateers and Militia, 1779-1811.** Pp. 12.

Extracts from the log-book of Andrew Stanley of Beverly, 1810 and 1811; a brigade-quartermaster's report for the first brigade, second division of Massachusetts, 1811, and the fac-simile of a commission of a privateer, comprise this Leaflet. Accompanying it as a separate is a reproduction in colors on cardboard 9x11 of a water-color drawing of a Beverly privateer and its prize in the harbor of Saint Pierre, Martinique, 1779. The extracts from the log consist of a table showing the "quantity of boards required to sheathe a ship of each class in the Royal Navy" and a list of signals and instructions for ships under convoy of the British navy. Illustrations show the grouping of lights for night signals and of flags for day.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

INNES, ARTHUR D. A Source Book of English History. Vol. I. Cambridge, University Press. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. viii, 383. \$1.35.

The latest contribution to the source book literature of English history is a volume by the well-known English historian, A. D. Innes. The work covers the period from 597 to 1603 and is the first of presumably two volumes. Since Cheyney's "Readings" was published, there has been no great need for such a work; still, the new collec-

tion will prove very useful as supplementary to Cheyney's book, as it adds materially to the number and variety of available selections. The selections for the period before 1066 are identical in nearly every instance to those included by Professor Cheyney; but after that date the amount of materials common to both books is very slight. Innes' volume differs from that of its American competitor in being composed almost exclusively of extracts from narrative sources; there are a few selections of a legal or literary character, but these make a very small portion of the whole. Innes also gives much more space to Scotch affairs than Cheyney does. The materials appear to have been chosen with great care; they possess illustrative value in every case, and are easily within the compass of the high school mind. It would have been better if the spelling had been normalized in every instance; still, there is something to say for retaining the earlier forms.

LAWRENCE M. LARSON.

GOOCH, G. P. History of Our Own Time, (1885-1911). New York, Henry Holt & Co. London, Williams & Norgate. Pp. vi, 256. 50 cents net.

In this volume of the Home University Library, the author undertakes to recount the main events in the political history of the world since 1885. The first six chapters are devoted to the internal history of Great Britain, France, the Latin South, Germany and Austria-Hungary, and Russia; and to the main features of international politics. The author's task has been extremely difficult, for he has had to eliminate nearly everything except the major events and agreement in the selection of these is not easy to secure. Usually he has selected essentials well, but the result is too much like a catalogue of events with many important points unexplained. The author assumes entirely too much information on the part of the general reader, who, here in America at least, knows all too little of even the most significant events in recent European history. To cite a few examples, the high school student would hardly understand a "Khaki election" (page 22), "Association Culturelle" (page 50), "the bloc" (page 52), "syndicalism" (page 53), "Weltpolitik" (page 90), etc., without explanation. The well-informed reader will find in many of the chapters valuable condensations of, and generalizations from the facts, but he can secure fuller and better statements elsewhere. Hence the book can not be strongly recommended for high school libraries.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

TAPPAN, EVA MARCH. When Knights Were Bold. Boston and New York, Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. xiii, 366. \$2.00 net.

In this book the author does not attempt to relate the narrative history of the Middle Ages, but merely "to present pictures of the manner of life and habits of thought of the people who lived between the eighth and fifteenth centuries." In short, the author has very well described many of the characteristic customs and features of mediaeval life. In the early chapters she describes the training of the knight, his arms and armor, and the jousts and tournaments for the knights' amusement and training. Then the details of castle construction and feudal warfare are well portrayed, using Chateau Gaillard as an example. Daily life in the castle and life on the manor are the sub-

CORRECTION. An error appeared on page 41 of the February number of the MAGAZINE in note 2 of Prof. Lingelbach's letter, which was not intended for publication. As it stands, a correction should be made after the word "Paris" in the 6th line, since it is not Levy who is referred to as making slides, but rather Arthur S. Cooley, Auburn-dale, Mass., who also has a catalogue of a fine collection of slides on Southern Europe.

jects of the next chapters, followed by a series of others concerned with pilgrimages, crusades, and monasticism in its various forms. The next three chapters deal with town life, the guilds, and mediaeval commerce; and the last three, with education and literature, science, and art.

The mechanical make-up of the book is good, the type is quite large and the numerous illustrations are well chosen from mediaeval manuscripts. The literary style is simple, clear, and interesting. Many interesting incidents enliven the descriptions and narrative so that the book will be read with pleasure by high school or even by grammar school boys and girls. Probably some of the chapters will be too long for regular assigned reading but all will be very useful for special reports. As a whole the book is favorably recommended to librarians and teachers who wish a readable and satisfactory reference book on mediaeval life.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

LARSON, LAURENCE MARCELLUS. *Canute the Great, 995 (circ)—1035, and the Rise of Danish Imperialism during the Viking Age.* (Heroes of the Nation Series). New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xviii, 375. \$1.50.

This is a remarkably good book, and the only satisfactory treatment of the subject in the English language. With infinite pains and thorough scholarship, the author has gathered the facts from a wide and varied range of sources. Teachers will find this book, with its ample annotations, a very useful illustration of how history ought to be written. Two of the chapters in particular will be especially valuable for collateral reading; viz., "The Twilight of the Gods," and "Northern Culture in the Days of Canute." Furthermore, throughout, the work is marked by keen insight into the conditions of the time, and very great accuracy of statement.

After a preliminary chapter on "The Heritage of Canute the Great," Professor Larson traces, in detail, the events which made Canute ruler of the empire which included England, Denmark, and Norway, together with many other lands over which he held sway to a greater or less extent. The relations with the Church receive fitting treatment. The appendices contain translations of Canute's proclamation of 1020 and charter of 1027. Over forty illustrations and four maps add decidedly to the value of the book. The only adverse criticism of the work is that in some portions the author has crowded in such a mass of detail that it is difficult to follow the main subject; but this is very seldom the case.

DANA C. MUNRO.

BOTSFORD, GEORGE WILLIS AND LILLIE SHAW. *A Source Book of Ancient History.* New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 583. \$1.30.

The advent of another Source-Book in Ancient History is hailed with pleasure. And the pleasure is all the greater that it bears the name of Botsford, for a new book by Professor Botsford, is one of the delightful happenings that do not come as often as teachers of Ancient History could wish.

The proportion of contents is admirable; about one-tenth is devoted to Oriental history, four-tenths to Greek, and the rest to Roman. Many selections are necessarily brief, since there is only one volume. However they do not suffer much from their brevity, for the very best parts have been selected and the connections are so well made that the "scrappy" appearance which teachers dislike is avoided. The material has been wisely arranged in chapters which correspond to those of most other text-books as well as to Botsford's *Ancient World*. Questions suggesting the important facts to be gathered from the extracts are placed at the close of each chapter.

A comparison of the part devoted to Roman History with Botsford's "Story of Rome" shows the same superior features which the earlier book possesses and that considerable excellent material has been added to illustrate the history of the later empire. The book has many proofs on the one hand of wide, exact scholarship and on the other of adaptability to the practical needs of the class room.

VICTORIA A. ADAMS.

DUNCALF, FREDERIC, AND AUGUST C. KREY. *Parallel Source Problems in Medieval History.* New York, Harper & Brothers. Pp. xiii, 250. \$1.10.

This is a new kind of source book. Previous source books have provided matter that might be used in various ways, but mostly have stopped there. This one not only provides matter but organizes it around problems, and gives appropriate aid for work on the problems. It is quite as much a problem-book as source book. Five subjects are treated: the coronation of Charles the Great, Canossa, capture of Jerusalem in 1099, departure of the university from Paris (1229-1231), and the coronation of Rienzo. On each subject are given, not isolated or scattered pieces, but parallel accounts. Preceding these are selected questions the student may bring to them, together with a brief statement of the historical setting of the problem and enough about the provenience of each account to enable one to read it understandingly and in a critical spirit. There are probably many who will think that the essential ends in view might be gained with fewer pieces, thus making possible a wider choice of subjects. However that may be, the authors of this book have done real service to the teaching of history. They have made a tool that should not only prove widely useful itself, but also greatly forward the problem-way of using the sources.

E. W. DOW.

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